APRIL 1804.

ART. LIX. *State of Egypt after the Battle of Heliopolis, preceded by General Obſervations on the Phyſical and Political Character of the Country. By* REYNIER, *General of Diviſion. Tranſlated from the French.* 8vo. pp. 349, price 7*s.* 6*d.* Robinſons; 1802.

ART. LX. *A Journal of the Forces which ſailed from the Downs in* 1800, *on a Secret Expedition under the Command of Lieutenant-General Pigot; continued through all the ſubſequent Tranſactions of the Army, under the Right Honourable General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. in the Mediterranean and Egypt; and the latter Operations under Lieutenant-General Lord Hutchinſon, K. B. to the Surrender of Alexandria: with a particular Account of Malta. By* ÆNEAS ANDERSON, *Lieutenant in the Fortieth Regiment. Illuſtrated by Engravings.* 4to. pp. 532. price £.2. 2*s.* Debrett; 1802.

ART. LXI. *Hiſtory of the Britiſh Expedition to Egypt; to which is ſubjoined, Sketch of the Preſent State of that Country, and its Means of Defence. By* ROBERT THOMAS WILSON, *Lieutenant-Colonel of Cavalry in His Britannic Majeſty's Service, and Knight of the Imperial Military Order of Maria-Thereſa.* 4to. £.1. 11*s.* 6*d.* or 8vo. 2 Vols. about pp. 600. price 18*s.* Egerton; 1802.

ART. LXII. *Journal of the Late Campaign in Egypt, including Deſcriptions of that Country, and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri. By* THOMAS WALSH, *Captain in His Majeſty's Ninety-third Regiment of Foot, Aide-de-Camp to Major-General Sir Eyre Coote.* 4to. pp. 440. With numerous Engravings of Views, Plans, Poſitions, &c. Price £.3. 3*s.* Cadell and Davies; 1803. Second Edition.

IN a war replete with extraordinary changes, and diſtinguiſhed by the ſubverſion of eſtabliſhed powers, and the production of revolutions in the governments of Europe—in a war where every military enterprize was calculated to fix the attention of mankind, the expedition to Egypt claimed an unuſual portion of regard. The groſs injuſtice of its origin, the previous labours of the troops employed by France in this attempt, and the celebrity of the general who led them—the early ſucceſſes obtained over brave men, but eaſy victims to the ſuperiority of modern European tactics—the dreadful impediments oppoſed to complete triumph by the naval victory of

Aboukir—the subsequent exploits of Bonaparte—his defeat before Acre by a handful of Britons, aiding a Turkish garrison—his flight to France, and astonishing elevation—the treaty of El Arisch, and its non-ratification, which occasioned the battle of Heliopolis—the unexplained murder of general Kleber—and, finally, the expulsion of the French from this land, possessed through crime and treachery, by a British army; all these circumstances render the military history of this expedition an object of the highest curiosity.—But, beside these incitements to inquiry, Egypt has ever been deemed fertile in unexplored wonders; and while the attention of the politician was fixed on the causes and probable consequences of the treacherous attempt of France; while the events of the war presented, to the military observer, new grounds of speculation on the advantages of tactics, and the means of attack and defence, in cases where skill and discipline were to compensate the want of numbers, and render ill-directed valour unavailing; the lovers of science hoped to derive from the researches of the *savans*, who attended the French expedition, or the industry of the learned in the British army, copious and useful information respecting the ancient learning and the modern state of Egypt.

The works now before us, comprise the narratives of four military men, of the proceedings of the two armies, during the campaign in which the British government undertook the expulsion of the French from their ill-gotten conquest. Whenever rivals relate the same event, it must be expected that considerable differences will prevail, not only in speculation but in statement. In the present instance, the French writer speaks of the exertions of the British troops with unqualified reproach, but, fortunately, in terms so evidently rancorous, and in many instances so repugnant to the opinions he wishes to establish, that the task of refutation has not been found difficult to Sir Robert Wilson, who has principally undertaken to detect the calumnies of Reynier. That a French general should write in this manner can afford no ground of astonishment. The eager desire of the French to vilify the British character has been unceasingly displayed almost ever since France assumed the name of a republic; and to discredit the national valour has been the laborious effort of the official dispatches, and of the compilers of the histories of campaigns, or of the revolution in general*,

* As instances of this disposition, we may, among many others, refer our readers to David's history of the Campaigns of Pichégru and the History of the Revolution by Desadoards.

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and to all who have written or declaimed on any topic where abuse could be introduced. The result of the attempt on Egypt was peculiarly afflicting to the French, and the chief Consul, because the defeat of their expectations and the ruin of their veteran army, were achieved by the foe whom they most hated, and on whose territories they had gained no advantage which could counterbalance the loss or extenuate the disgrace. In all their conflicts with other nations, they could boast either of glory or profit, but where the dependencies of England were the object of attack, nothing but loss and disappointment were the result; and in the attack on Egypt, the great naval victory of Aboukir, and the successful campaign in 1801, achieved by Great Britain alone, frustrated the sanguine hopes, and restored the inordinate ambition of the republicans. Such motives were sufficient to inflame with rancour the mind of every Frenchman, and, in the indulgence of that passion, Frenchmen are never scrupulous votaries of truth; but Reynier had personal reasons for writing with unbounded acrimony. He was, as appears by his own narrative, a member of a faction hostile to Menou, the successor of Kleber; a faction which in the end became so troublesome, that the commander in chief was obliged to send some of its leaders, and Reynier among the number, prisoners to France. Thus inflamed by patriotic animosity on one side, and personal hatred on the other, this writer has framed his recital; continually taking care to inform his readers how ignorant and cowardly the English were, and never failing to remind them, that nothing but the greater ignorance and cowardice of Menou could have occasioned the disasters of the republican troops.

To elucidate the contradictory statements in these histories, we shall begin by noticing the assertions of Reynier, confronting them with the contradictory affirmations of Sir Robert Wilson, his professed antagonist, and using the other two authors whose works are before us, and such other documents as can be collected on the subject, as corroborating evidence.

General Reynier describes the plan of his work in these terms;

" I have thought it my duty to collect accurate materials for the history of the latter period of the expedition to Egypt; *and, although it is difficult to preserve perfect impartiality, when the writer treats of events in which he acted a part, I have made it my study never to lose sight of it.* In speaking of the troops, I shall uniformly have occasion to trace their constancy and courage; but it is no longer a series of brilliant victories like those under Bonaparte, that I have

to deſcribe; nor a campaign like that of Heliopolis; what I have to relate is a ſeries of diſaſters. It is due to the character of the army of the Eaſt to publiſh the cauſes of theſe miſfortunes; that it may be known that, throughout, the troops ſhewed themſelves worthy of their former reputation."

On this profeſſion of impartiality, and the manner in which Reynier has obſerved it, Sir Robert Wilſon makes the following remarks:

"Had General Reynier confined himſelf to the vindication of the honour of the French army, ſuch an attempt would have been natural and praiſe-worthy; but when perſonalities and illiberal aſperſions mark every obſervation, which is alſo as replete with error as inveteracy, indignation cannot be too ſtrongly expreſſed, and the maxim urged, which General Reynier ſhould have known better to appreciate, 'That the calumniation of an enemy is no evidence of courage.' When an officer writes, he ſhould remember that his military character is involved, and that no violence of party can juſtify a wilful perverſion of truth. As a man of honour, he ſhould be above demeaning himſelf by unjuſtly traducing the conduct of his enemies. The Engliſh Gazettes, and General Hutchinſon's Orders, might have directed General Reynier to a nobler line of conduct." "Still" (he adds) "notwithſtanding General Reynier's injuſtice, I cannot conclude theſe remarks, without adding what is due to his talents, that the world has much reaſon to regret that General Reynier did not exert his commanding abilities to inveſtigate and relate facts, and that various prejudices have prevented the military ſervice from receiving that information which no officer was better qualified to give."

At the period treated of in theſe narrations, the French, accuſtomed to the country, and dreaded by its inhabitants, had conquered the difficulties which at firſt oppoſed their eſtabliſhment. The road through the deſert of Syria was open to them; no enemy was apprehended but the Turks, who might penetrate into the interior, and raiſe the fanaticiſm of the inhabitants; but the French were to be protected from the attacks of the Arabs, the inhabitants of Egypt, and a foreign enemy, by fortified poſts, few in number and capable of that ſervice, with ſmall garriſons, that the army might not be weakened by too many detachments. Bonaparte had, before his departure, marked out the centre of military operations and magazines, the poſts on the frontiers and thoſe of communication. He had alſo formed on the Nile a marine, ſtrong enough to protect military movements and the neceſſary convoys. The conſtruction of fortifications was difficult; the methods and reſources were different from European uſage. Wood was wanting, tools ſcarce, a great number having been loſt with the fleet: the troops, worn with fatigue, and diſpi-

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rited for want of ſtrong liquors, laboured reluctantly; nor did the inhabitants cheerfully lend their aid to ſtrangers who oppreſſed and inſulted them: they could only be employed on the coarſeſt parts of the labour, and were not eaſily induced to accuſtom themſelves to the uſe of European tools. Theſe circumſtances, Reynier obſerves, greatly retarded the fortifications; yet they roſe with a rapidity which ſurpriſed the inhabitants, and made a powerful impreſſion in favour of the French.

After the battle of Heliopolis, and the ſiege of Cairo, the French army, Reynier obſerves, was ſurrounded with the moſt brilliant circumſtances. The troops well clothed, well fed, and regularly paid, were completely ſatisfied with their ſituation. The rupture of the treaty of El Ariſch had excited their indignation. *The Turks were not formidable enemies.* The confidence of the republicans in their governors was augmented, and the army was animated with anxious deſires to preſerve the conqueſt which they had achieved. The extraordinary contributions levied on Cairo, for what the French termed the *revolt of the people*, furniſhed means to pay the arrears of the army, including the ſoldiers pay; and the regulations adopted by Kleber introduced economy into the expenditure, diminiſhed the charges of collection, and put a ſtop to various extortions and dilapidations.

The people of the country, on the contrary, aſtoniſhed and diſpirited at the defeat of the Vizier of the Porte, the greateſt perſonage to whom their knowledge extended, became convinced that all their endeavours to reſiſt the French muſt be ineffectual; and the ſeverity with which inſurrections were puniſhed tended to confirm their peaceable diſpoſitions. Kleber had raiſed a battalion of five hundred Cophts, whom he clothed in the French uniform, and, by encouraging the natives in general to enter the French demi-brigades, gained conſiderable augmentations to his army, one demi-brigade alone having recruited and diſciplined three hundred men. The Greeks volunteered into the French ſervice; Bonaparte had raiſed two companies, and Kleber had augmented them to nearly fifteen hundred men.

Differences of opinion had ſubſiſted between Kleber and Menou before the aſſaſſination of the former threw the command of the army into the hands of the latter. Thoſe generals who had been moſt in the confidence of Kleber formed a party againſt his ſucceſſor: they would gladly have prevented the confirmation of his nomination; but not ſucceeding in that, they uſed all their addreſs to embarraſs his proceedings, to render the army diſaffected, and to give ſuch a

turn to the regret naturally felt for Kleber and Deſſaix as would introduce compariſons diſadvantageous to Menou.

In inquiring into the events which attended the Britiſh expedition, the relative force of the two armies becomes a natural ſubject of preliminary inveſtigation. That of the French is not detailed with ſufficient accuracy by Sir Robert Wilſon or by Mr. Walſh, though the reſult of both their enumerations is, that it greatly exceeded that of the Engliſh. Reynier, in a table annexed to his work, makes the number of troops capable of taking the field, but ſpread over Egypt, amount to 27,644, but he makes no allowance for women and children; they were probably not very numerous; but including them, Captain Walſh makes the total French force 30,050, from which he deducts, evidently by gueſs, 10,000 for women, children, and non-combatants, leaving a reſidue of 20,050, being conſiderably leſs than the number admitted by Reynier, who in effectives, garriſon troops, officers, artillery men, drivers, &c. eſtimates Menou's force at 24,864, excluſive of the 1128 Cophts, Syrians, and Greeks, the ſick, the civil agents, and the men of ſcience. Sir Robert Wilſon rates the French force at a greater amount than either of the other authors; for from the details of killed and captured in different battles and ſieges, he produces a total of 32, 80 individuals on the military, and 768 on the civil eſtabliſhment; including 760 auxiliaries embarked, but excluſive of the Cophtic battalions "diſbanded at Cairo, and 600 deſerters altogether, alſo women and children." The difference in the ſtatements of Sir Robert Wilſon and Captain Walſh is more remarkable, as both muſt have drawn their information from the ſame ſources, and as Captain Walſh allows the numbers who *marched* out of Cairo and Alexandria to have been 25,500, while Sir Robert Wilſon eſtimates them only at 24,788; but Sir Robert Wilſon exceeds Captain Walſh in the account of killed and priſoners, and adds to his number a computation, probably very moderate, that 1500 of the enemy died of the plague and other diſeaſes ſubſequently to the landing of the Engliſh. It is not poſſible to reconcile, or even account, for the great variance between the two Engliſh authors, unleſs we ſuppoſe Sir Robert Wilſon intended, in the paſſage above cited, to include women and children, whom, by the conſtruction of the paragraph, he appears to exclude; and in that caſe, allowing for the 1500 whom Captain Walſh evidently omits, the difference is not conſiderable.

With reſpect to the Britiſh, or rather allied force, employed in the courſe of the expedition, Reynier has uſed every art to make the number appear greater than it was, as well collectively

lectively as on each separate service. He estimates the whole English army, including all reinforcements, at 23,400 men; the troops from India at 6000; the corps of the Captain Pacha at 6000; the Vizier's army at 28,300, and the men landed from the various fleets, to assist the troops and the natives who joined the Grand Vizier, at 27,000; making, according to him, a force of 90,700 men, to act against the 27,644, who constituted all the numerial muster of his countrymen. On this point we are not able to refute his affirmations by official statements; but Sir Robert Wilson makes the following observations, which are, in general, evidently well founded, and where the computation of numbers alone is in question, entitled to more confidence than the assertions of Reynier, when it is considered that the English historian, writing in a free country, exposes himself to be refuted by every one capable of producing a contradictory fact; while, from the state of the press in France, the author who has the address to render his compositions agreeable to government, need not feel alarmed at the perils of investigation.

"In the returns of strength," Sir Robert Wilson observes, "nothing can be more inaccurate than General Reynier. He states the following to have been the number of particular corps in Egypt:

Corsican Rangers	400	True return	209
Hussars of Hompesch	300		140
11th regiment of dragoons	500		55
Marines	2000		400
British artillery with the Vizier, including artificers	500		39
Sailors doing duty in the batteries	500		300
	4200		1143

"With regard to his statement of the combined force acting against Egypt, his observations are very superficial, since no considerable part of General Baird's army reached Cosseir before the 8th of June; for Colonel Murray's arrival at the latter end of May with a few men, cannot be deemed a reinforcement on the scale General Reynier wishes to make the application: nor did the Indian army join General Hutchinson until after the fall of Alexandria. The British troops, therefore, who conquered Egypt, taking the surrender of Cairo as the epoch when the country was reduced, and which must be so considered, were those who originally landed under the command of Sir Ralph Abercromby, to whom, independently of 1000 men, who came from Malta at the latter end of May, and the detachment of the 86th regiment of Suez, 150 men, no reinforcement arrived; and which army the French nearly doubled in numbers, exclusive of the vast superiority which posses-

sion of the country, a powerful cavalry and artillery, afforded them The Turks, certainly, altogether must not be excluded from a share in the triumph; but General Reynier exaggerates their numbers; and although they did contribute greatly to the success, still we must remember that this is the first occasion where their hordes have been honoured with any respectful attention by the French; yet also must we confess that there is more reason after General Belliard's defeat; which affair, however, a superior General Officer described with much humour, "as a parcel of sheep running from dogs without teeth."

If, however, any doubt should remain on this subject beyond that which applies to accuracy of enumeration, General Reynier removes it himself in the First Chapter of the Third Part of his work, where he says,

"The English Ministers sent positive orders to the English General to act against Egypt; *but the Turks were not in haste to move in concert with them:* they equally feared the success of their allies, and their defeat. *The Vizier*, still dismayed at the recollection of the battle of Heliopolis, dreading to expose himself to new disasters, *was absolutely resolved not to march, till the success of the English had opened the way to him.* His authority was contemned in the greater part of the province of Syria. To form an army and magazines, he had only the reinforcements and the convoys that he received from the capital. The Captain Pacha was at Constantinople with part of his fleet. He inclined to treat with the French rather than again to incur the hazards of an expedition, and waited the issue of the irresolution of the Porte."

On the arrival of the English fleet off the coast of Egypt, differences of opinion seem to have prevailed between Menou, and Reynier and his party. Reynier, verbally and in writing, enforced the necessity of acting with the whole army against the English, insisting that the Vizier would make no attempt against Cairo in the absence of the French, or, even if he did, that he might easily be expelled after the defeat of the English. General Menou was of a different opinion, and, knowing the disposition of the inhabitants, was desirous of defending every point of the territory allotted to him to command. In favour of Reynier's plan may be alleged all the successes which attended Bonaparte and the Archduke Charles in the memorable campaign of 1796 in Italy and Germany, with many other eminent instances; and perhaps the ultimate ill fortune of Menou will, by many, be regarded as a still stronger argument; but still some allowances should be made for the peculiar local knowledge possessed by Menou, and for his jealousy of the very man who, without being solicited, was so forward in giving his advice.

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The Engliſh force, detained ſeven days by bad weather in ſight of Alexandria, was at length enabled to effect a landing at Aboukir: 5850 troops, according to Reynier (and in this ſtatement he does not materially vary from Sir Robert Wilſon, though Captain Walſh makes the number rather leſs than 5000) were embarked in boats to effect a landing, in defiance of the oppoſition of 2500 according to Captain Walſh, 2000 according to Sir Robert Wilſon, or according to Reynier 1730 Frenchmen, "poſted on the top of the ſand-hills, forming the concave arch of a circle on the front of about a mile, in the centre of which elevated itſelf a nearly perpendicular height of ſixty yards, apparently inacceſſible." Theſe heights were moreover defended by twelve, or, according to Reynier, ten pieces of cannon, and by the artillery in the caſtle of Aboukir. "The quantity of ſhot and ſhells which was diſcharged," ſays Sir Robert Wilſon, "as the boats approached, and ſhowers of grape and muſquetry, ſeemed ſo to plough the ſurface of the water, that nothing on it could live." In ſpite of this oppoſition, however, the Britiſh troops did effect a landing, and carried every point by their ſpirit and perſeverance. Reynier aſſerts that the French troops were too weak to oppoſe the landing of an army which had at its diſpoſal a prodigious quantity of boats, and the whole force of the Britiſh fleet. Sir Robert Wilſon, on the contrary, thinks it neceſſary to apologize for the apparent raſhneſs of the enterprize, obſerving, that from a conſideration of the enemy's ſtrength, and an obſervation of the map, military men muſt allow that a landing in the face of ſuch a poſition was nearly impracticable, and treating the conqueſt as one of thoſe ſingular phenomena which occaſionally occur to animate the brave with a confidence, that brilliant exertions, ſupported by perſevering courage, may ſurmount mathematical improbabilities, and ſnatch a victory where cold calculation would predict a certain defeat.

In the different narratives of this event we are ſtruck by the candour of the Britiſh writers, and the flagrant miſ-ſtatements of Reynier. Sir Robert Wilſon allows that the French defended themſelves with great firmneſs, and ſeems to conſider the victory almoſt as a miracle; and Captain Walſh pays many compliments to the bravery of the enemy. Reynier, on the contrary, ſuppreſſing many particulars of the ſtrength of the poſition occupied by his countrymen, aſcribes the ſucceſs of the Engliſh entirely to numbers, to their fleet, and the faults of Menou; and endeavours to depreciate the valour of the Britiſh ſoldiery, by ſtating that "The ſailors rowed ſtanding with incredible vigour, and without regarding the fire of the French

French artillery, while the troops lay at the bottom of the boats."

On this malignant calumny Sir Robert Wilson makes the following remarks:

"What kind of boats muſt thoſe flats have been, which would have allowed of ſuch an extenſion? Is it poſſible that any one can be ignorant of the neceſſity of troops, in all debarkations, wedging as cloſe as poſſible together in an upright poſition; or how could fifty men be carried in each boat? Malignity ſhould always thus defeat itſelf. No Britiſh ſoldier would detract, in the ſmalleſt degree, from praiſe juſtly conferred on the navy; but the ſeamen themſelves will indignantly reject ſuch ungenerous and malevolent applauſe."

Captain Walſh, having evidently in view the miſrepreſentations of Reynier, though he does not enter into a perſonal conteſt with him, explicitly ſtates that each flat-bottomed boat contained about fifty men, excluſive of the ſailors employed in rowing. The ſoldiers were ordered to ſit down on the bottom, holding their firelocks between their knees.

It is not the office of reviewers to follow the accounts of the different narrators which deſcribe, on the part of the French, the reſolution, too tardily adopted, perhaps, of General Menou, to ſend reinforcements to Alexandria, and the meaſures purſued by the Engliſh for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing themſelves, ſtrengthening their poſition, and landing their artillery, labours which were much impeded by the want of cavalry, but forwarded by the unremitting exertions of the military and the ſailors. We cannot, however, avoid noticing ſome ſtatements which are made by the rival writers of the action of the 13th March.

That the French were ſtrongly poſted on the heights near Alexandria, and that they felt ſufficiently confident in the reinforcements they had received, and in their own immenſely ſuperior cavalry and artillery, to attempt, on the 12th, to prevent the advance of the Britiſh army towards Lake Maadie, are facts in which both parties agree. On the next day the great battle was fought, in which the Britiſh troops, with ſo much bravery and perſeverance, expelled the enemy from their ſtrong poſts. In the details of the engagement Reynier does not vary materially from the accounts of the Britiſh authors, except in ſome imprudent and evidently ridiculous gaſconades of particular acts of valour in the republicans, and falſe accounts of two battalions of Engliſh troops laying down their arms. Reynier, however, cannot deny the ſucceſs which attended the exertions of his opponents, nor do the Engliſh writers palliate the melancholy fact that from 1100 to 1300 of their brave men were killed and wounded, while the loſs of

the French did not exceed 500, or at the utmoſt 700. This diſproportion is juſtly attributed by Captain Walſh to the incalculable advantage poſſeſſed by the French in

"A numerous and admirably well-ſerved flying artillery, which kept up a very deſtructive fire upon us; which *enfilading* the depths of our columns, and *ricochetting* from diviſion to diviſion, cauſed great havoc in our ranks."—"Our motions," he obſerves, "were ſlow, we being often obliged to halt for the artillery, which not being drawn by horſes, but by men, was dragged with great difficulty and labour through the heavy ſands. During theſe intervals, the enemy, whom we forced every where to give way, regularly rallied, and, bringing up their flying artillery, galled us bitterly: but as ſoon as we were again in motion, they wheeled about with them, and going off full gallop, took, at a diſtance, a new poſition for annoying us."

The loſs was augmented by a pauſe of ſeveral hours after taking of the firſt range of heights, during which Sir Ralph Abercromby reconnoitred, and finally reſolved not to attack the ſecond hills, they being commanded, as he conceived, by two forts. During this awful interval, the men were ordered to ſit down, and the enemy "began to play," Sir Robert Wilſon relates,

"From all their field artillery and heavy ordnance. General Hutchinſon's column found ſome ſhelter from the inequalities of the ground, and the reſerve was protected by the broken ſurface of the ſoil on the right, although the French advanced two field pieces to the Mole-hill in front of the left againſt them. The centre remained totally expoſed. Whilſt Sir Ralph Abercromby reconnoitred, the army continued under the moſt terrible and deſtructive fire from the enemy's guns to which troops were ever expoſed. The work of death was never more quick, or greater opportunity afforded for deſtruction. The French, no longer in danger, had only to load and fire: aim was unneceſſary; the bullets could not but do their office, and plunge into the lines. For ſeveral hours did the Engliſh remain patiently ſuffering this exterminating fire, and never betrayed the leaſt irreſolution. If a word was heard, it contained only a wiſh to be led on to the aſſault." "Whole files," ſays Captain Walſh, "were every inſtant ſwept down, and the chaſm it occaſioned as ſpeedily filled up."

It muſt in the higheſt degree irritate the ſurvivors of this action, filled with admiration of the troops they led, to read ſuch accounts as thoſe of Reynier, who, in every paragraph, affirms or inſinuates that they wanted courage; while the Engliſh officers ſtate ſuch undeniable proofs of their reſolution and perſeverance, adding, that their movements were with the ſame ſteadineſs and accuracy as if at a review in England. While we perceive this diſingenuous diſpoſition in Reynier to depre-

depreciate the valour of thoſe who conquered the army which formed the boaſt of France, we cannot heſitate in pronouncing to the diſadvantage of his veracity in the ſtatement of numbers, where, for the purpoſe of tarniſhing the laurels of the Britiſh army, he magnifies their number to 16,000 infantry, 2000 marines from the fleet, 200 horſe, and 10 pieces of cannon; and reduces the French force to 3850 infantry, 520 cavalry, and 21 pieces of artillery. We are more inclined, from the temper ſo conſtantly diſplayed by the French writer, to believe Captain Walſh to be in the right; who ſtates the Britiſh force altogether at 14,000, and that of the enemy at nearly 7000.

"But though ſo much ſuperior in point of numbers," he obſerves, "we laboured under great diſadvantage from our deficiency in cavalry and artillery, in both of which the French had a decided ſuperiority. We had not two hundred and fifty cavalry mounted, and thoſe ſo wretchedly as to be ſcarcely able to act. They had upwards of ſix hundred, mounted on excellent and well-trained horſes. In artillery their ſuperiority was ſtill more conſiderable; as they had in the field nearly forty pieces of cannon, and moſt of them curricle guns; while the few that we had were ſlowly, and with difficulty, dragged along by ſailors and ſoldiers."

In the relation of the battle of the 21ſt March, Reynier, equally anxious to inculpate Menou, who had arrived from Cairo with reinforcements, and to detract from the merits of the Britiſh troops, tells a confuſed and contradictory ſtory. The battle was fought by 9700 Frenchmen, including 1500 cavalry, with 46 pieces of cannon, againſt a Britiſh army which, according to Sir Robert Wilſon's ſtatement, did not yield an effective ſtrength of 10,000 men. Theſe were placed in a ſtrong poſition, but the French, from their commanding heights, had been able to aſcertain all the points on which an attempt could be made, and even to enumerate every redoubt which had been raiſed. The project of a ſurpriſe was partly fruſtrated by the extraordinary precaution of Sir Ralph Abercromby, who cauſed all his troops to be under arms before day-light; and partly by the eagerneſs of General Lanuſſe, who did not allow time for the feint on the left to take effect, before he diſcloſed the real intention of the General by a furious charge on the right. The reſult of the conflict was the loſs of 6 officers and 233 men killed; 63 officers and 1219 men wounded and miſſing on the ſide of the Engliſh, and about 4000 men ſlain and wounded of their opponents. The Britiſh troops had to regret their brave leader, Sir Ralph Abercromby, who, in a few days, expired in conſequence of his wounds. The French were deprived of Generals Lanuſſe, Baudot, and Roize, and ſeveral others were

deſpe-

desperately wounded. They lost also the celebrated standard of the regiment which Bonaparte proudly termed *invincible*. The observations on this severe conflict and its various circumstances, belong rather to military men than peaceable critics; but those which the narrative of General Reynier has extorted from Sir Robert Wilson deserve to be attentively considered by persons who read for the sake of attaining truth, and not in the hope of displaying an affected impartiality by extravagant applauses of the enemies of their country.

"General Reynier," he observes, "whose history is from beginning to end a tissue of untruths, attempts to insinuate 'that General Hutchinson improperly remained a tranquil spectator of the action, with 6000 men opposed to 800;' but had General Hutchinson made a move with the left wing he would have broken the position, and merited every disaster. His duty was to remain, in such an action, where the superiority of cavalry and artillery was so prodigiously in favour of the enemy, on the defensive; and nothing could have justified the quitting of his lines but a positive order from the commander in chief for a combined general movement. How many battles have been lost by an indiscretion, the non-existence only of which, in this instance, General Reynier has a right to deprecate. His assertion is just, that the battle was fought by the right of the English army only; and he thus entangles himself in bestowing praise where he meant to traduce. The French army, according to his account, was nine thousand seven hundred men strong, including fifteen hundred cavalry, with forty-six pieces of cannon. The British force, reduced by their losses in the actions of the 8th and 13th, by the men taken away for the care of the wounded, by the absence of the marines, and 26th dismounted dragoons, at Aboukir, did not yield an effective strength of 10,000 men, including three hundred cavalry. The half of that number resisted the concentrated attack of the French army, exclusive of eight hundred men on its right, and by their own immediate valour and exertions gained the battle. But General Reynier will not find an universal sentiment of approbation as to the conduct of the French right on that day, even in his own army. *The most distinguished officers have coincided with what was apparent to the English, that the right did not support at any moment* (and there were some advantageous opportunities) *the exertions of the left, or cover its discomfitures. But perhaps the Gazette account, which states that the French right was always kept refused, has goaded General Reynier, who commanded it, and who thus, without equal foundation, retorts.* General Menou directed the right to be thrown back only until the left and centre were warmly engaged; and even if his orders were not so explicit, General Reynier must know that in an attacking army no positive arrangements can be made, and that a general must, and should, act frequently on his own responsibility from momentary circumstances. It is in vain he attempts to detract from the honour of this victory; nor will his misrepresentation of the 42d regiment crouching *ventre à terre* under the cavalry, find

find credit any where, since the bravery of the Scottish regiment has this war been too frequently witnessed. With more implicit faith will it, however, be believed, that many of the French troops were in a state of intoxication, a habit which has been too frequent this war, and which originates in the issue of spirits always before a prearranged attack. But no excuse can be formed for the officers, one of whom, and of rank, was so tipsy when taken, as to be the object of general derision. It must, however, be stated that the French soldiers, whatever might be the incitement, were extremely gallant, and amongst the wounded several traits of heroism was displayed."

These were the principal contests, and those in which the military prowess of the English was most conspicuous, and therefore those respecting which the greatest differences prevail. The authors of both nations relate the subsequent facts, the advance of the British forces after the conjunction with the Captain Pacha, the capture of different forts, and the siege and surrender of the great towns, with considerable variations, occasioned frequently by the different sources from which the writers derived their information, and sometimes by the great anxiety of Reynier to produce reflections unfavourable to the conduct of Menou. This writer concludes his work with high compliments to his own countrymen, and aspersions on their conquerors.

Having thus noticed the general tendency of these works, so far as they concur in a common object, we proceed to examine their separate and peculiar merits. General Reynier is allowed by Sir Robert Wilson, who is a candid and liberal opponent, to possess great talents, commanding abilities, and eminent qualifications to impart information. Of the motives which appear to have warped his integrity as a historian, enough has already been said; and it would be an unpardonable extension of this article to recapitulate the account of his quarrel with Menou, which terminated in his being sent prisoner to France.

In the Introduction to his work he has given an able, though succinct, Account of the Country, its Inhabitants, and the Changes produced in both by the Invasion of the French. The Narration and Description are simple and forcible, but the Observations are often strongly coloured by the prejudices or the vain glory of the writer. A ludicrous instance occurs in the following observation:

"The qualities the Arabs hold in the highest estimation are, frankness and courage. One of the greatest eulogiums they can give a man is to say of him, that 'he has but one tongue.' They were little accustomed, *before the arrival of the French, to find that quality among the masters of Egypt!!!*"

In

In another place the author, after deſcanting on the Means of Improving the State of Egypt, and obſerving that it can only be effected by a foreign force, poſſeſſing the government, ſays,

"But to this end it was neceſſary *to ſtudy the temper of this people, to gain their eſteem, love, and veneration, which alone could give the government a moral force ſufficient to eſtabliſh and conſolidate new inſtitutions;*" and theſe things could be effected only ſucceſſively and ſlowly. It was at the time the French had, in part, acquired in Egypt the knowledge and moral aſcendancy on which ſucceſs depended, that they abandoned Egypt; and peace, which reſtores tranquillity to every other people, is no benefit to the inhabitants of Egypt. They will return to their inteſtine diviſions, and plunge again into barbariſm."

Surely, if the horrible recollections with which the ſubject is attended would permit any thing like levity, no man could refrain from a ſmile at being thus pompouſly told that maſſacre wantonly committed, rapes and robberies without number, the abolition of all accuſtomed authorities, and the ſubſtitution of bayonets and tri-coloured ſcarfs, formed a ſucceſsful mode of *ſtudying the temper of a people, gaining their eſteem, love, and veneration, and procuring for government a moral force.* How far theſe methods had ſucceeded, may be learnt from the zeal and affection with which the natives ſerved and ſupplied the Engliſh; from the eagerneſs with which an Arab diſcovered to them, on their landing, a cloſed well, which had been carefully concealed from the French; from the perſeverance of the people in ſending ſupplies to the Britiſh camp, though the republicans denounced the penalty of death againſt ſuch an offence; and the alacrity of an Arab in ſending to Sir Sidney Smith notice of General Menou's arrival, and his intended aſſault on the 21ſt of March.

The tranſlation of this work is moderately well executed; a few Galliciſms are its greateſt blemiſhes. It is adorned only with a Map of Lower Egypt.———

On the peculiar characteriſtics of Lieutenant Anderſon's work we ſhall only obſerve, that it was intended to afford to the public the earlieſt information on a ſubject on which all claſſes of men were anxiouſly curious. It commences with the failing of the Britiſh expedition from the Downs; and includes, not only details reſpecting the army in Egypt, but of all the tranſactions relative to Malta. As more correct accounts have been ſince exhibited, and written in a ſtyle ſuperior to Mr. Anderſon's work, it can now only be conſidered as a chrono-

chronological arrangement of events, ſupported by letters from the gazettes, official returns, general orders, and ſpeeches in parliament. The ornaments are, plans of Malta and Marmorice Bay, and ſeven views drawn by Lieutenant Anderſon, and tolerably well engraved.———

Sir Robert Wilſon begins his preface by deprecating ſeverity of criticiſm, and appealing to the conſideration and candour of the learned, among whom he does not preſume to rank himſelf; obſerving, that the writings of a ſoldier cannot affect the credit of literature. This apology was not altogether unneceſſary, nor abſolutely requiſite in its full extent. There are in his book faults which may convince the reader that it is not the production of an experienced author; but the general ſtyle and manner of his writing ſufficiently prove him not only to be a man of ſound ſenſe and accurate obſervation, but alſo a reſpectable ſcholar. Having made this remark, we cheerfully comply with his requeſt, and abandon the leaſt pleaſant and leaſt inſtructive part of our office, that of anatomizing ſentences, and cavilling about the choice of words, to pay attention to the peculiar information which Sir Robert Wilſon has been able to communicate.

In the courſe of his narrative he has, as we have ſeen, taken ſeveral occaſions, where time or place called forth particular recollections, to contradict the falſehoods of the French narrations of events, and expoſe ſome of the horrors attending the career of Bonaparte. Thus, at Aboukir he contradicts the pompous romance, written to the executive directory by Bonaparte, and repeated as hiſtory by Berthier; and ſhews that the 17,000 Turks ſuppoſed to have been vanquiſhed at that place, 10,000 being driven into the ſea, conſiſted in fact of no more than 8,000; of whom 4,000 were killed, 2000 eſcaped, and 2000 were made priſoners.

The maſſacre of 3,800 priſoners at Jaffa, and the poiſoning of 580 of his own ſick, by order of Bonaparte, leſt they ſhould encumber the army, are given in Sir Robert Wilſon's narrative as undoubted facts; but as they have been ſo often before the public, we forbear tranſcribing the paſſages in which they are recorded.

Turning with pleaſure from the contemplation of theſe horrors, we notice the character of the celebrated Morad Bey, one of the few extraordinary perſonages of whom Egypt had to boaſt, and of whom the following account is given.

"A few days before a meſſenger had arrived from Morad Bey, with an anſwer to a letter ſent from the Engliſh commander in chief, accompanied by the Grand Signor's firman, and Captain Pacha's guarantee of protection. He aſſured the Engliſh general, that

that if his army advanced toward Cairo, he would join him, but obſerved, that he dare not make a deciſive movement previouſly; and in a letter to Sir Sydney he wrote, 'How can I be attached to the French? Have they not deprived me of my ſovereignty, my honour and revenue? But it is on the Engliſh faith alone I can depend: the Turks have no right to my confidence.' Alluding to the hoſtility of the Turks againſt him, and the unnatural inveteracy of people who profeſſed the ſame faith, he beautifully expreſſes himſelf, 'Melancholy is it to reflect, that the arrow which has ſtuck in the eagle's wing was an arrow made of an eagle's feather.' The Beys and Mamelukes regretted the death of this extraordinarily great man ſincerely; and when they buried him at Saouague, near Tahta, they paid the compliment to his valour of breaking his ſabre into his grave, as an expreſſion that none of them was worthy after him to wear his arms. General Reynier's ſtatement of his character ſhall be given, ſince the French had moſt communication with him, and therefore ſhould know his character beſt.

—"Morad Bey was no ordinary man; he poſſeſſed, in an eminent degree, the virtues and the weakneſſes which attach to that point of civilization the Mamalukes are arrived at. Abandoned to all the impetuoſity of his paſſions, in his firſt emotions he was terrible; but his vehemence frequently ſubſided in extreme weakneſs. Gifted by nature with that aſcendancy of character which marks men for empire, he poſſeſſed the inſtinct to command, without any knowledge of the duties of a governor. Prodigal and rapacious, he laviſhed all on his friends, and then oppreſſed the people to ſupply his own wants. To theſe general traits muſt be added, an extraordinary ſtrength of body, a courage not to be daunted, and a confidence ſuperior to misfortune, which never for a moment deſerted him in all the numerous criſes of his diſtracted life.

"Morad Bey had fought for his independence as long as there was proſpect of ſucceſs; but deſerted by the Turks *, and preſſed by General Deſſaix, he had no other alternative than to be driven from the whole of his government, or compromiſe for a part; and he judiciouſly choſe the moment to treat, when his means ſtill made his alliance deſirable to the French: but he never was in heart reconciled to them; his religion and pride forbad the friendſhip, independent of other motives."—

"The following anecdote is alſo related; the cauſe of his perſonal inveteracy againſt them. Some French officers of rank aſſembled at the houſe of Madame Morad Bey, the widow of the great Ali Bey, who entertained them with all the hoſpitality ſhe could poſſibly manifeſt; and, as they retired, preſented the young Beauharnois with a ring of conſiderable value. A few days afterward, a contribution was laid on her property, of far greater extent than her proportion had previouſly been fixed at, and much beyond her

* He had information of a perſon being even appointed to aſſaſſinate him. Sir R. W.

means to pay. On complaint being made, she received for answer, 'that as it was understood she still possessed very costly ornaments, no mitigation could be pleaded.' This exaction then appeared to be founded on the present she had so generously, but, as it proved, imprudently, given to the relative of Bonaparte, with the motive of shewing honour to that general. As such it was considered as the grossest breach of faith and hospitality; nor could Morad Bey ever speak of the transaction without the bittersest expressions of indignation."

In Sir Robert Wilson's work we meet with occasional descriptions of the state of society, and accommodations (if, indeed, any thing subsisting among the Arabs can be called by that name) in the cities and in the country; but the author declines giving a view of the interior regulations and general system, referring the reader to General Reynier, with a frank and liberal acknowledgment of his great abilities, where his knowledge and talents were not, as in his military history, fettered with prejudice.

Wherever he is led by the progress of events, Sir Robert Wilson instructs his reader by occasional observations on the most prominent objects of curiosity. His descriptions of the pyramids, the sphynx, the mummy pits, and the bird pits in the neighbourhood of Cairo, are interesting, and contain a considerable portion of information, if not of novelty, in a compendious form. Similar praise is due to the manner in which, after relating the reduction of Alexandria, he describes Cleopatra's Needles and Pompey's Pillar, of which accurate dimensions are given; and a due tribute is paid to the ingenuity of two British officers, who, after a labour of three weeks, by taking advantage of that portion of the day when the sun was favourable to their attempt, deciphered an inscription which had baffled the researches of the French *savans*, and even extorted from them an opinion that it was impossible.

In a review of the moral and physical state of Egypt subjoined to his work, Sir Robert Wilson considers it as a place of the utmost importance, both in a commercial and military point of view, and necessary to England, not as an acquisition of wealth or aggrandizement, but for security. He proposes measures, therefore, for the security of Alexandria; the possession of which, he alleges, would be more beneficial than that of the whole colony. At what time explicit declarations from the powers of Europe will render the discussion of this speculation necessary, it is not easy to foresee; but at present it does not appear requisite to investigate the motives of policy which should impel the British government to, or deter them from, the adoption of Sir Robert Wilson's plan.

The

The diseases of Egypt are stated to be numerous and dreadful. The plague is less tremendous since the bold experiments of European physicians have ascertained, that it is neither so superior to medical skill, nor so extensively contagious, as fear and ignorance had represented it; but still it is sufficiently formidable to occasion well-founded alarms, though it is intimated that a good European government might hope in time for its total extermination. Ophthalmia is another disease of the most terrific description: the anguish of the affected part is so acute as almost to produce delirium; and, in Egypt, every fifth inhabitant has lost one eye, many both. All the children have sore eyes; and Europeans do not escape better. The English, during their short stay, had one hundred and sixty rendered totally blind, and two hundred irrecoverably deprived of one eye. The disease originates, it is believed, in nitrous particles emitted from the ground by the force of the sun: its extirpation can scarcely be expected, and it has been discovered to be highly infectious. The dysentery is a twin evil with ophthalmia: it is imputed by some to the water of the Nile; but Sir Robert Wilson ascribes it more to diet, and most to checked perspiration.

"In Egypt," he says, "every thing which is eaten tends to promote acrimonious humours. The poultry of the country, from being unnaturally forced in ovens, seem to have the sources of health and growth dried up, never exceeding the size of a pigeon: their bodies yield only skin and bone, between which are lumps of rank fat, extremely nauseous and unwholesome: the eggs are very heavy, and often occasion sickness. Buffalo meat is indigestible, and the mutton not very good. The oily food of the common inhabitants still more weakens the intestines, and produces a disposition to bile; but the principal cause of dysentery is checked perspiration. The soldiers crowded into the Nile when their bodies were pouring out streams of moisture, indifferent to the consequences of which they were so frequently warned. At night a damp air chilled those who did not secure themselves by covering; and during the march to Cairo, frequently fifty men per day, seized with the malady, were obliged to leave the army."

Beside those already mentioned, Sir Robert Wilson enumerates, among the diseases of Egypt, a cutaneous disorder, extremely disagreeable, but not dangerous: *leprosy*, of the worst species:—*elephantiasis*, very common, and of the worst sort, swelling the legs larger than a common bed-bolster:—*hernia*, extremely frequent:—*syphilis* of the most malignant kind:—*dropsy*, *sore heads*, *worms*, and *liver complaints*, very frequent.

He also gives us a catalogue of the minor plagues of Egypt. Rats in extraordinary abundance, which the inhabitants of

ſome villages near Roſetta eat:—flies and other inſects numerous beyond credibility:—fleas in ſuch quantities, that in twelve hours clean linen was covered with thouſands of ſpots of blood:—lice, of every ſpecies:—muſquitoes and gnats, whoſe bite was particularly venomous:—ſcorpions and centipedes; the ſting painful and producing tumour, but not dangerous:—and locuſts, very deſtructive.

This work, ſo honourable to the talents, the induſtry, and the patriotiſm of the author, concludes with an ample appendix of papers and documents in ſupport and illuſtration of the narrative; and it is adorned with a map of the Weſtern branch of the Nile, plans of the battle of the 21ſt of March, the affair of Rahmanie, and the inveſtment of Cairo, and a portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby.

Captain Walſh ſtates, that "his ſituation affording him a particularly favourable opportunity of knowing many things with accuracy, either from his own obſervation, or from authentic documents, it was his conſtant practice to commit them to paper daily as they occurred." He was alſo aſſiſted in the execution of his work by the kindneſs of ſeveral brother officers, who were preſent in various parts where operations were proceeding at the ſame time.

"All he aims to give," he ſays, "is a ſimple narrative of the events that occurred from the 24th of October 1800, the day on which ſailing orders arrived at Gibraltar, to the final conqueſt of Egypt; unadorned with the beauties of compoſition, or elegance of ſtyle. To diſcuſs the propriety of meaſures, reaſon on the conſequences of incidents, and beſtow praiſe where ſo much well-earned praiſe is unqueſtionably due, would be in him not merely an invidious taſk, but would deſervedly expoſe him to the cenſure of preſumption. From this, therefore, he has refrained, leaving the facts to ſpeak for themſelves; and, not aſpiring to the praiſe of an hiſtorian, he has preferred the journal form, as more conſonant with his views."

Profeſſing alſo to deſcribe what he has ſeen, the author gives a ſhort account of Gibraltar and Minorca; one more detailed, and not without intereſt, of Malta; a deſcription of Marmorice, Macri, and ſeveral of the places to which he was led by the operations of the army. The military narrative is modeſt and candid; no new facts are detailed by which inquiry may be ſtimulated or doubt obviated, but a clear view is given of the progreſs of the troops in every direction; and particularly, an ample detail of the voyage and proceedings of the army from India under General Baird.

After relating the ſurrender of Alexandria, which completed the expulſion of the French from their conqueſts, Captain Walſh

Walſh deſcribes the various objects which attracted his attention, of which we ſhall give a brief account.

"Alexandria, once the capital of the commercial world, is now converted into a deſolate heap of ruins. That part which bears the name of the New Town, is little better than a common Turkiſh village, the only decent houſes being thoſe of the European conſuls. The remains of beautiful marble and granite pillars, mixed and confounded with the miſerable ruins of Arab dwellings, preſent themſelves at every ſtep, and force upon the mind a melancholy compariſon of the ancient ſplendour of the emporium of the world with its preſent degradation. The noble ciſterns are in a great part choked up with ſand and rubbiſh, except thoſe which were made uſe of by the French garriſon.

"South of the town, and nearly in a line with Pharos, ſtands Pompey's pillar. Nothing can exceed the beauty of this fine monument of ancient architecture: it is in the higheſt ſtate of preſervation, except the North-weſt quarter, which I imagine has ſuffered from the conſtant and violent winds blowing from that point the greater part of the year. Cloſe to the ſea-ſide, South by Eaſt of Pharos, is Cleopatra's Needle, and near it lies its fellow obeliſk, which had always been ſuppoſed to be broken, part of it being buried in the ſand; but the French cleared away the ground all around it, and found it perfectly whole. It is exactly the ſame as the one now ſtanding, both as to ſize, and the hieroglyphics with which it is covered. Theſe obeliſks are ſuppoſed to have ſtood at the entrance of ſome temple. Each is of one entire piece of granite, ſixty-five feet high.

"Cairo is a long, extenſive, ſtraggling, and miſerable town, the houſes all extremely high, but ill built. The ſtreets are irregular, and ſo narrow that it is difficult for two horſemen to ride through them abreaſt. The reaſon for not building the ſtreets wider is, to exclude as much as poſſible the ſun. But if this be an advantage, they are ſubject alſo to many inconveniences, eſpecially when the plague rages. The population is computed at upwards of three hundred thouſand ſouls. The ſhops which line the ſtreets are very wretched; and in them you ſee the indolent tradeſman ſitting ſquat upon the counter, and ſmoking his pipe. The moſques are fine, and very numerous. The ſquare of Eſbekier is the largeſt and fineſt in the city, and in it all the beys and rich people formerly reſided*. During the inundation of the Nile this ſquare is covered with water, on which the great have their barges and pleaſure boats.

"*The French had greatly adorned this ſquare by planting it with trees: they had alſo planted trees on each ſide of the road from Boulac to Cairo, as well as of that from Fort Ibrahim to the city; but when I was at Cairo, which was leſs than two months after the French had quitted the place, more than three fourths of them were rooted up and deſtroyed, ſo averſe were the people in general to any improvement that came from the hand of a Chriſtian."

"The inſides of the houſes of the beys and other great people are decorated with paintings coarſely executed it is true, and with paſſages extracted from the Koran. The floors of the principal apartments are of marble. In the centre of theſe is generally a fountain of water, which riſes through numerous ſpouts, and falls back into the baſin. Round theſe fountains the beys, reclining upon cuſhions, ſmoke their pipes. Elevated above the floor are galleries encloſed with very cloſe lattice work, and communicating with the harem. Behind theſe their women, entirely hidden from view, are enabled to ſee and hear without any danger of being ſeen."

With reſpect to the Nile, Mr. Walſh obſerves:

"Although it is not a rapid river, yet during the time of its overflowing, the force of the current is amazingly great. When it is at its height, the water is of a reddiſh brown colour, and nearly as thick as mud, ſo that it is almoſt impoſſible to make uſe of it for drinking before it has been purified. For this purpoſe large jars are filled with water, the inſide of them having been previouſly rubbed round with bitter almonds, or beans, and in theſe it will ſoon ſettle, and become quite clear. Women, very carefully muffled up, are conſtantly ſeen on the banks, filling theſe jars with water.

"At Roſetta and Cairo are ſold abundance of earthen bottles, named Alkarras, which are very uſeful for cooling water. Theſe are made of white clay, baked in the ſun. They are ſo porous that the water is conſtantly exuding through them, and by its evaporation from the external ſurface produces ſuch a degree of cold as to render the water within of a grateful temperature. All our fleet on the coaſt made uſe of no other water than that of the Nile, which was found extremely fit for every purpoſe.

"There is no country in the world where the climate is more regular than in Egypt. The ſky is almoſt always beautifully clear and ſerene; it ſeldom or never rains in the interior parts, but on the ſea coaſt it frequently rains in the winter time. The ſhowers are ſhort, though heavy, and are immediately ſucceeded by a fine blue ſky. The heavy dews which fall in the night make up, in part, for the want of moiſture, the effect of which was always perceived in the morning, when, as ſoon as the ſun appeared above the horizon, our tents began to ſmoke as copiouſly as if a great quantity of rain had fallen. During the whole campaign we enjoyed the greateſt advantage from the very clear and bright nights; and we were ſeldom deprived of the benefit of a fine moon, here ſcarcely ever overclouded, and ſhining with extreme luſtre."

In ſeveral parts of Mr. Walſh's work we have entertaining accounts of the manners of the people whom they viſited in the courſe of the expedition. At the Grecian village of Kaya, he ſays;

"We were treated with all imaginable hoſpitality. Never was there a more ſtriking contraſt than that between the manners of this enſlaved people and thoſe of their deſpotic neighbours. It was toward

ward evening when we left the place; at which time all the merry inhabitants, men, women, and children, were aſſembled in the front of their miſerable houſes, the younger part gaily dancing to the ſound of the *lera*. They ſeemed unconſcious of their miſery, and a look of happineſs and contentment appeared in the countenances of all around. But it is melancholy to think how rigorouſly they are treated, and how cruelly oppreſſed. The women are tall, handſome, and well made; and the eaſy elegance of the Grecian dreſs becomes them very well. They have not the abſurd Turkiſh cuſtom of concealing their faces, which, on the contrary, they ſeem to delight in diſplaying; and which would be pretty, if diveſted of the many little medals with which they are covered."

One of the many intereſting parts of Mr. Walſh's book is the account of the Mamelukes, of which, however, we can give but a ſhort extract:

"The Mamelukes, taken as light troops, or as individual horſemen, are equal, and perhaps ſuperior, to any in the world; but without tactics, and never acting in a body, they cannot be expected to ſucceed againſt European troops. Their deſperate courage, and ſingular dexterity in managing their horſes, were often experienced by the French, and never ſhone more conſpicuous than at the celebrated battle of Embabeh, where they repeatedly charged the ſolid ſquare of the French, and where ſo many of them fell victims to their ill-judged bravery. Theſe Mamelukes were ſo richly dreſſed and accoutred that the French ſoldiers actually fiſhed up the bodies of thoſe who were drowned in the Nile, by which they obtained very conſiderable booty."

Beſide the Mamelukes, who, though conſtituting but a very inconſiderable part of the population, are the rulers and the proprietors of the country, we have alſo ſketches of the manners and habits of the Bedoween Arabs, and the Fellahs. From theſe the Mamelukes exact the greater part of the produce, by repeated impoſitions, and often oblige the Fellahs to abandon their houſes, and take refuge among the inhabitants of the Deſert. Numerous villages, totally deſerted, are ſeen all over Egypt, ſad examples of theſe vexations. The reſt of the villages are ſtriking pictures of the miſery of the inhabitants; though few of them are without a public ſchool, where children are inſtructed in reading the Koran.

Captain Walſh has added to his work a very uſeful appendix. Its price has been chiefly enhanced by the ſplendour of the engravings, which are forty-nine in number. They conſiſt of maps and views of different places, and of buildings elegantly executed; exquiſite delineations of the moſt celebrated antiques, plans of general and particular military operations, well drawn and coloured; and drawings of perſons and other

objects, which by their colouring describe to the eye the dress, appearance, and manners of the people, in a much better manner than could have been effected by the most laboured efforts of the pen.

ART. LXIII. *The Crisis of Britain: a Poem. By the Rev. Mr. Maurice.* 4to. pp. 32, price 2 *s.* 6 *d.* White, London. 1803.

THIS poem, Mr. M. informs us, was originally written and published at the period of the menaced invasion of these kingdoms by the French in 1798, when the Right Honourable William Pitt, to whom it was addressed, presided at the helm. It ran rapidly through two editions, and is now republished in the anxious hope that at the present most awful crisis it may serve the great cause in which we are all so deeply interested.

We have perused this poem with considerable pleasure. It is the effusion of a mind well stored with classic literature, and glowing with the fervour of patriotism. To adopt Mr. M.'s own expression,

> ——" Fir'd in virtue's cause he pours along
> The thundering torrent of Tyrtæan song."

We may, however, be permitted to remark, that though the charge of professed irreligion and atheism which Mr. M. urges against our enemies with vehement eloquence, might be relevant in 1798, by the re-establishment of popery, and the provisions of the *Concordat*, they have acknowledged their error in this respect, and therefore he would perhaps have done well by cancelling or modifying that part of his poem which treats on this subject, to withdraw or to qualify the imputation to which we have alluded. When every fair deduction is made, the catalogue of the crimes of France will be sufficiently ample to afford our patriotic poets abundant topics for reprobation.

In p. 26, we have noted an instance of bad taste, which we should not have expected to find in a composition of the author of the Ode to Mithra. We have always regarded Van Tromp's fixing a broom to the mast-head of his ship as a very coarse gasconade; and we do not think that Mr. M. has evinced superior delicacy in acquainting his readers that Admiral Blake

> ——" Tore indignant down
> That barbarous emblem of usurp'd renown:
> Then driving o'er the surge the routed foe,
> *Swept* the proud vaunter to the gulfs below.

We

We certainly do remember the famous "beſom of deſtruction" mentioned by Iſaiah, and we acknowledge that in ſpite of the homelineſs of the inſtrument this perſonification of deſtroying energy is highly ſublime. But Mr. M. cannot plead this paſſage as his exemplar; for it will by no means juſtify his puerile conceit of ſweeping Van Tromp into the ſea with his own broom.

Whilſt, however, we freely cenſure ſuch inſtances of incorrectneſs in judgment, in the ſpirit of the ancient maxim, "*ubi plura nitent*," we loſe the remembrance of them when we find how amply they are compenſated by the dignified energy which pervades the general courſe of the poem.

We ſhall conclude our critique by laying before our readers a part of Mr. M.'s commemoration of our naval victories:

"If, urg'd by rage, and furious from deſpair,
Gaul's baffled fleets again the ocean dare,
The brave Cornwallis, on the billowy field,
Shall rouz'd Britannia's direſt vengeance wield;
Or Nelſon, dreadful in her kindled ire,
Rain on thoſe fleets a ſtorm of liquid fire.
See! far remote in Aſia's ſultry ſky,
A thouſand flags in crimſon radiance fly;
Hear! round the Baltic's frozen frontier hurl'd,
Her deep-ton'd thunders ſhake the northern world.

"Sublimely thron'd on Vincent's rocky height,
Hark! Glory, from her ſhrine of circling light,
Loud hails her Jervis, on th' Iberian main,
Reſiſtleſs burſting through the line of Spain!
Ardent to gain the wreath that Ruſſel crown'd,
And brave Boſcawen's vet'ran temples bound,
Reckleſs of ſtorms, behold intrepid Hood
Plough, with unwearied toil, the briny flood;
In all their ports the ſkulking foe he braves,
And burns to plunge him in the whelming waves!
Laſt, but not humbleſt, on the roll of fame,
With nerve of adamant, with ſoul of flame,
See fearleſs Duncan, ranging undiſmay'd
Belgium's dire ſhore, with death and peril ſpread,
And ruſh, regardleſs of impending doom,
Where ev'ry billow yawns—a wat'ry tomb!
Though ruin hover in a thouſand forms,
Reſolv'd, Batavia's marſhall'd fleet he ſtorms;
Tremendous on the foe his vengeance falls,
And thick around deſcend the rattling balls.
Retreat is vain; behind the breakers roar,
While Britain's waſteful thunders urge before;
The doubling game the dauntleſs Scot purſues,
And, in the jaws of death, the fight renews;

Aloft

Aloft in air her tatter'd ſtandards fly,
Low bends the ſtately maſt that piere'd the ſky;
Devouring flames conſume the glowing deck,
And a third navy floats—a boundleſs wreck!"

ART. LXIV. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa in the Years* 1797 *and* 1798: *Including curſory Obſervations on the Geology and Geography of the Southern Part of that Continent: the Natural Hiſtory of ſuch Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms: and Sketches of the phyſical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants ſurrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. To which is annexed, a Deſcription of the preſent State, Population, and Produce of that extenſive Colony: with a Map, conſtructed entirely from actual Obſervations made in the Courſe of the Travels. By John Barrow, late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and Auditor-General of Public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope.* 4to. pp. 419, price £1. 11 *s.* 6 *d.* Cadell and Davies. London. 1801.

THE ſituation which Mr. Barrow held at the Cape afforded him ample opportunities of making himſelf acquainted with all the topics which he has undertaken to diſcuſs; and being the confidential friend of Lord Macartney, we may, independently of the internal evidence of his work, ſuppoſe that the facts which he relates will be circumſtantially true. Previouſly to this publication, the information relating to the Cape of Good Hope, and the ſouthern parts of Africa, was ſcanty, and not to be depended on. We entered, therefore, on the taſk of examining the merits of the work before us with ſingular ſatisfaction. We felt confident, from the character and connexions of the author, that the boundaries of geographical knowledge would be extended, and that we ſhould obtain ſome intereſting information reſpecting the ſeveral tribes inhabiting the ſouthern parts of Africa, of whom little, indeed, was before known. Our expectations have been realized, and from what we have ſeen in the volume before us, we are led to anticipate ſtill further pleaſure, and new ſources of knowledge, from a ſecond volume which has lately been announced, but which has not yet reached us.

The firſt chapter of this work contains a general view of the colony of the Cape, with a particular deſcription of the promontory. The extent of territory compoſing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope is equal to a parallelogram, comprehending an area of 128,150 ſquare miles, which, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants. A great portion, however, of this territory

territory is unprofitable waſte, unfit for any ſort of culture, or even to be employed as paſture for the ſupport of cattle.

The deſcription of the mountainous peninſula, on which Cape Town is ſituated, is ſatisfactory; its principal productions in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms are enumerated with preciſion; and the meteorological appearances cauſed by the Table Mountain are well explained. The well-known phenomenon of the fleecy cloud, not inaptly called the *Table Cloth*, which envelops the ſummit of the mountain, is thus accounted for:

"A ſingle glance at the topography of the Cape, and the adjacent country, will be ſufficient to explain the cauſe of this phenomenon, which has ſo much the appearance of ſingularity. The mountainous peninſula is connected with a ſtill more mountainous continent, on which the great ranges run parallel to and at no great diſtance, from the ſea-coaſt. In the heat of the ſummer ſeaſon, when the South-eaſt monſoon blows ſtrong at ſea, the water taken up by evaporation is borne in the air to the continental mountains, where, being condenſed, it reſts on their ſummits in the form of a thick cloud. This cloud, and a low denſe bank of fog on the ſea, are the precurſors of a ſimilar, but lighter, fleece on the Table Mountain, and of a ſtrong gale of wind in Cape Town, from the South-eaſt. Theſe effects may be thus accounted for: The condenſed air on the ſummit of the mountains of the continent ruſhes, by its ſuperior gravity, toward the more rarified atmoſphere over the iſthmus, and the vapour it contains is there taken up and held inviſible, or in tranſparent ſolution. From hence it is carried by the South-eaſt wind toward the Table and its neighbouring mountains, where, by condenſation from decreaſed temperature and concuſſion, the air is no longer capable of holding the vapour with which it was loaded, but is obliged to let it go. The atmoſphere on the ſummit of the mountain becomes turbid, the cloud is ſhortly formed, and, hurried by the wind over the verge of the precipice in large fleecy volumes, rolls down the ſteep ſides towards the plain, threatening momentarily to deluge the town. No ſooner, however, does it arrive, in its deſcent, at the point of temperature equal to that of the atmoſphere in which it has floated over the iſthmus, than it is once more taken up, and vaniſhes into air—" to thin air." Every other part of the hemiſphere ſhews a clear blue ſky, undiſturbed by a ſingle vapour."

The manners and condition of the inhabitants are next deſcribed, together with the ſeveral diſeaſes to which they are liable; and it may be obſerved that upon the Cape of Good Hope falling into the hands of the Engliſh, the abolition of torture, and breaking on the wheel, was inſtantly carried into effect, and the mild ſpirit of the Britiſh ſyſtem of criminal law ſubſtituted in their room. To this the court of juſtice objected, as a dangerous

gerous innovation, though, according to Mr. Barrow, experience has so far contradicted the fears that were entertained on the subject, that there have been fewer executions since the abolition of the rack and torture than had taken place in the same period of time for many years before. Not only were the judges dissentients on this occasion, but the executioners were so dissatisfied with the new and lenient system that one of them made application for a pension in lieu of the emoluments he used to receive for the breaking of legs and arms; and the other committed an act of suicide, preferring a speedy exit to the dread of starving for want of his accustomed employment.

Of the system of slavery carried on at the Cape, Mr. B. speaks with becoming indignation: he considers it as the effect of indolence, and by no means necessary to the well-being of the place; and he has given a striking instance of the revengeful temper of a Malay slave, who,

"Conceiving that he not only had served his master sufficiently long, and with great fidelity, but had also paid him several sums of money, he was tempted to demand his liberty, and met with a refusal. The following morning the Malay murdered his fellow-slave. On being taken and brought up for examination before a commission of the court of Justice, he acknowledged that the boy he had murdered was his friend; but he had considered that the most effectual way to be revenged of his master was, not by taking away his life, but by robbing him of the value of a thousand rix-dollars, by the loss of the boy, and another thousand by bringing himself, in so doing, to the gallows, the recollection of which would prey upon his avaricious mind for the remainder of his life."

The conclusion of the chapter will be read with interest, as comprising, in a few pages, a number of facts relating to the present state of the inhabitants, and as descriptive of the rising prosperity of the colony while it remained in the hands of the English. The other chapters are modestly denominated by our author *Sketches* only, to be filled up and finished by future travellers, "and they are submitted to the public more with "the consciousness of truth than of any literary attainments "in the writer." The reader will, we are certain, proceed with Mr. B. on his journey with pleasure; he will derive entertainment from his description of the face of the country over which he passed, and receive instruction from the facts in Natural History, which he has registered with an accuracy worthy of a philosophical traveller. In some cases he has corrected notions, which had obtained credit from the respectability of the persons, or sources from whence they had been derived; and in others he has opened an ample field for the future

future inveſtigation of thoſe who, from motives of buſineſs or curioſity, may be induced to follow in the ſame route. But what renders Mr. B.'s work highly eſtimable in our opinion, is the account which he gives of the various people among whom he occaſionally reſided, and whoſe character he appears to have properly appreciated.

Previouſly to his journey acroſs the Karroo, or Arid Deſert, Mr. B. deſcribes the liſtleſs indolence of the women, and general ignorance of both ſexes; among whom a book of any kind is rarely to be found, except the Bible, and *William Sluiter's Geſangen*, or Songs compoſed from the Bible, done into verſe by the Sternhold and Hopkins of Holland. Mr. B. adds,

"Rude and uncultivated as are their minds, there is one virtue in which they eminently excel—hoſpitality to ſtrangers. A countryman, a foreigner, a relation, a friend, are all equally welcome to whatſoever the houſe will afford. A Dutch farmer never paſſes a houſe on the road without alighting, except, indeed, his next neighbour's, with whom it is ten to one he is at variance. It is not enough to inquire after the health of the family in paſſing: even on the road, if two peaſants ſhould meet, they inſtantly diſmount to ſhake hands, whether ſtrangers or friends. When a traveller arrives at a habitation, he alights from his horſe, enters the houſe, ſhakes hands with the men, kiſſes the women, and ſits down without farther ceremony. When the table is ſerved, he takes his place among the family without waiting for an invitation. This is never given on the ſuppoſition that a traveller in a country ſo thinly inhabited muſt always have an appetite for ſomething. Accordingly, "What will you make uſe of?" is generally the firſt queſtion. If there be a bed in the houſe it is given to the ſtranger; if none, which is frequently the caſe among the graziers of the diſtant diſtrict of Graaff Reynet, he muſt take his chance for a form, or bench, or a heap of ſheep-ſkins, among the reſt of the family. In the morning, after a ſolid breakfaſt, he takes his ſopie, or glaſs of brandy, orders his ſlave or Hottentot to ſaddle the horſes, ſhakes hands with the men and kiſſes the women; he wiſhes them health, and they wiſh him a good journey. In this manner a traveller might paſs through the whole country."

Our traveller took with him two grazing farmers of Graaf Reynet, who were not only uſeful in pointing out the places where water was generally found, but were alſo an addition to his ſtrength in caſe of an attack from a ſavage tribe of Hottentots, known by the name of *Boje/mans*, or men of the thickets, who are held in ſuch deteſtation that a farmer thinks he cannot proclaim a more meritorious action than the murder of one of theſe people. A boor being aſked at the Secretary's office, juſt before Mr. B. left the town, if the ſavages were numerous

numerous or troubleſome on the road, replied, "he had only ſhot four," with as much compoſure and indifference as if he had been ſpeaking of partridges.

In the deſert they met with *zebras*, a ſpecies of wild horſe called the *qua-cha*, and a number of oſtriches; the eggs of the latter afforded them many delicious repaſts, and we are informed, that in theſe eggs were ſometimes found "a number of ſmall oval-ſhaped pebbles, about the ſize of a marrow-fat pea, of a pale colour, and exceedingly hard. In one egg were nine, and in another twelve of theſe ſtones." After a journey of thirty days, the events of which are detailed with minuteneſs, they entered, through the Poort, into Camdeboo, where the habitations ſtand at the diſtance of many miles from each other. At the entrance of this place Mr. B. obſerved a heap of ſtones, which was pointed out as the grave of a Hottentot; and he learnt that the ſize of the heap had no connection with the diſtinction of the deceaſed; but depended entirely upon the attention paid by ſurviving friends or relations.

"The intention," ſays Mr. B. "was very different from that of the monuments of a ſimilar kind that anciently were erected in various parts of Europe, though they very probably might have proceeded, in a more remote antiquity, from the ſame origin, which was that of preventing the wolves, or jackals, or other ravenous beaſts, from tearing up and mangling the dead carcaſe. The progreſſive refinement of ſociety converted at length the rude heap of ſtones, originating in neceſſity, into ſculptured marble, the uſeleſs flatterer of vanity."

The third chapter contains an account of a journey into the country of the Kaffers, which was not accompliſhed without danger, but which afforded a great variety of objects worthy the notice of an inquiſitive and well-informed traveller. In ſome places the ſcenery was beautiful and grand; and in others the roaring of the beaſts of the foreſt would make the ſtouteſt heart to tremble.

"Nothing," ſays Mr. B. "could be more beautiful nor more intereſting than this grand and extenſive ſhrubbery appeared to be for the greateſt part of the firſt day's journey; but the inconvenience it occaſioned toward the evening, when we wiſhed to halt, was ſeriouſly felt. There was no ſpace ſufficient for the tent and waggons, or to make faſt the oxen; and, what was the worſt of all, not a drop of water. The weather had been very ſultry; the thermometer fluctuating generally from 75° to 80° in the ſhade, during the day; yet the cattle had taſted water once only in three days. The two nights they were unyoked it was neceſſary to bind them faſt to the waggons, that they might not ſtray into the thicket, where they would infallibly have been loſt, or devoured by lions.

The prints of the feet of this deſtructive animal were every where freſh on the road; and every night we heard them roaring around us. Beſide theſe were heard the cries of a multitude of ferocious beaſts that nightly prowl the woods in queſt of prey. The roaring of lions, the bellowing of buffaloes, the howling of wolves, the yelping of jackals, and the timid looing of our oxen, were parts in the nocturnal concert that could not be ſaid to produce much harmony to us, who were encamped in the midſt of a foreſt of which we could diſcern no end."

The author has indeed deſcribed the face of the country through which he paſſed, and its various products, with a minuteneſs that allows us no opportunity of following him. He exhibits an extenſive knowledge in botany, mineralogy, and other branches of natural ſcience. Among the fruteſcent plants which attracted his attention, was a new ſpecies of the *ſtrelitzia*, in full bloſſom, differing in a very remarkable manner from thoſe already known: of this, a very fine plant is in his Majeſty's collection at Kew, where it is ſaid to flower freely. Mr. B. has given a full account of the ſalt lake, chalybeate ſprings, foreſts, &c.: but we ſhall paſs on to his remarks on the Hottentots. The cruel and impolitic conduct of the coloniſts towards this harmleſs race of men is reprobated by our author; who takes an opportunity of refuting the accounts that have hitherto been given by Kolbe and others, of their cuſtoms and habits of life. The credit that has long been given to Kolbe, by all our writers on this ſubject, demands that juſtice ſhould be now done to a people who have no means, of themſelves, to excite public attention. In this reſpect Mr. B. merits very highly of the friends of truth and real humanity. The character which he draws of the Dutch coloniſt is ſuch as no good man can contemplate without diſguſt and horror. The Hottentots are repreſented as the moſt helpleſs, and perhaps the moſt wretched of the human race; duped out of their poſſeſſions, their country, and, finally out of their liberty, they have entailed upon their miſerable offſpring a ſtate of exiſtence to which that of ſlavery might bear the compariſon of happineſs. There is ſcarcely an inſtance of cruelty, ſaid to have been committed againſt the ſlaves in the Weſt-India iſlands, that could not find a parallel from Dutch farmers towards Hottentots in their ſervice. Beating and cutting them with thongs from the ſkin of the rhinoceros is a gentle puniſhment. Firing ſmall ſhot into the legs and thighs of a Hottentot is a puniſhment not unknown to ſome of the monſters who inhabit the neighbourhood of Camtoos river. Inſtant death is not unfrequently the conſequence of puniſhing the poor wretches in a moment of rage. This is of little conſequence to the farmer; for though

though they are his ſlaves, yet they are not transferable property. The Dutch peaſant flogs them, not by any given number of laſhes, but by time; and as they have no clocks to mark the ſmaller diviſions of time, he has invented an excuſe for the indulgence of one of his moſt favourite ſenſualities, by flogging them till he has ſmoked as many pipes of tobacco as he may judge the magnitude of the crime to deſerve. Low, however, as the Hottentots are ſunk in the ſcale of humanity, yet, according to Mr. Barrow,

"They are a mild, quiet, and timid people; perfectly harmleſs, honeſt, faithful; and, though extremely phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of ſtrong attachments. A Hottentot would ſhare his laſt morſel with his companions. They have little of that kind of art or cunning that ſavages generally poſſeſs. The indolence of a Hottentot is a real diſeaſe, whoſe only remedy ſeems to be that of terror. Hunger is inſufficient to effect the cure. Inſtances frequently occurred in the courſe of our journies, when our Hottentots have paſſed the day without a morſel of food, in preference of having the trouble to walk half a mile for a ſheep. Though patient of hunger, they are the greateſt gluttons upon the face of the earth. With them the word is to eat or ſleep. When they cannot indulge in the gratification of the one, they generally find immediate relief in flying to the other.

"Their manner of eating marks the voracity of their appetite. They cut their meat into ſtrings of two or three yards in length, which they coil up and broil on the aſhes. When juſt warm through, they graſp it in both hands, and applying one end of the ſtring to the mouth, ſoon get through a yard of fleſh. The aſhes of the green wood that adhere to the meat ſerve as a ſubſtitute for ſalt. As ſoon as a ſtring of meat has paſſed through their hands, they are cleaned by rubbing over different parts of their body. Greaſe thus applied from time to time, and accumulating perhaps for a whole year, ſometimes melting by a large fire, and catching up the duſt and dirt, covers, at length, the ſurface of the body with a thick coating, that entirely conceals the natural colour of the ſkin.

"The dreſs of a Hottentot is very ſimple. It conſiſts of a belt made from the ſkin of ſome animal: from this is ſuſpended, in front, a ſort of caſe, made out of the ſkin of a jackal, and to the back part of the belt is attached a piece of dried ſkin, which reaches to the middle of the thigh. A great beau will probably faſten a bracelet of beads, or a ring of copper, round his wriſt. The Hottentot women, by their rage for dreſs, accelerated the ruin of their huſbands, which they themſelves had brought on by as ſtrong a rage for ardent ſpirits and tobacco. Theſe two articles, and glaſs beads, were exchanged for their cattle; things uſeleſs, and even pernicious, for what was their only ſupport, the ſoul of their exiſtence."

Mr. Barrow next gives a deſcription of the phyſical character of the Hottentots, comparing it with that of the Chineſe;

Chineſe; and to this ſubject he refers in the ſame way, in other parts of the volume: hence, perhaps, we may infer that he conſiders this race of people to be of Chineſe origin. We pretend not to trace the deſcent of this barbarous tribe, but we acknowledge that what Mr. B. has advanced is not ſufficient to convince us that there is any real likeneſs between the moſt civilized and ingenious, and one of the loweſt of the human ſpecies. The natural colour, and the conſtruction of the general features, are grounds much too vague to build ſuch an hypotheſis upon.

According to our author, the Hottentots poſſeſs a very ſmall portion of knowledge. They have a name for the ſun, another for the moon, and a third for the ſtars; but this is the extent of their aſtronomical knowledge. The ſeaſon of the year is indicated by being ſo many moons before or after *uyntjes tyd*, or the time that the roots of the *iris edulis* are in ſeaſon, a time particularly noticed by them, as theſe bulbs once conſtituted a conſiderable part of their vegetable food.

"I know not," ſays Mr. B. "how far the numerals in his language proceed, but none of thoſe of our party could tell beyond *five*, nor could any of them put two numbers together but by the aſſiſtance of their fingers. Yet they are very far from being a ſtupid people. They learn the Dutch language with great facility. They are excellent markſmen with the gun; and they are uncommonly clever in finding out a paſſage over a deſert uninhabited country. By the quickneſs of their eye they will diſcover deer and other ſorts of game when very far diſtant, and they are equally expert in watching a bee to its neſt. They no ſooner hear the humming of the inſect than they ſquat themſelves on the ground, and, having caught it with the eye, follow it to an incredible diſtance. The organ of ſight, no doubt, is ſtrengthened and improved by exerciſe. Seamen on board ſhips will diſcover objects at ſea the moment they appear above the horizon, and long before they become viſible to a paſſenger's eye."

Among the Kaffers, Mr. B. met with a very hoſpitable reception. Kindneſs to ſtrangers ſeems to be a feature in their national character. In return for this attention, our author has given a full and intereſting account of the manners, cuſtoms, mode of life, and ſtate of ſociety of this race of men, who are deſcribed as "tall, ſtout, muſcular, well-made, and elegant figures;" and who, though black, "have not one line of the African negro in the compoſition of their perſons."—Their ſimple laws; their humble arts; the ſtate of their agriculture; their mode of hunting; their total want of boats, canoes, or any kind of floating veſſel, though dwelling on the ſea-coaſt, which abounds with rivers and fiſh; their diet, reli-

gion, language, all afford useful subjects for reflection to the inquisitive mind. They have the singular custom of exposing their dead to be devoured by wolves, for which piece of service a Kaffer holds the life of a wolf sacred, at least he never attempts to destroy it.

In the fourth chapter we have an account of a journey into the country of the Bosjesman Hottentots, the object of which was, to make observations on the state of the inhabitants of the Snowy mountains, by whom the colony is chiefly supplied with cattle, and to endeavour to get an interview with the chiefs of the Bosjesmans, and to try, if by presents they could be prevailed upon to quit their present wild and marauding way of life. A great number of geological observations are made in the course of this chapter, and many subjects in natural history are noticed, particularly what relates to the clouds of locusts which sometimes overshadow the country; to the thrush that feeds upon them; to the elegant and sporting gnoo, which by the Dutch is called the *wild beast*, and which is said to partake of the nature of the horse, the ox, the stag, and the antelope. In the *System Naturæ* this animal is arranged among the antelopes, to which of the four, according to our traveller, it has certainly the least affinity.

For the account given of the Bosjesmans, and of the attempt made to obtain from them a conference, we must refer the reader to the work itself. There, also, he will find discussed a subject relating to the conformation of certain parts belonging to the human frame, which has hitherto been the cause of much misrepresentation. From the Bosjesmans, Mr. B. proceeded northward, till he and his companions were stopped by the Orange river, which was more than a quarter of a mile wide at the distance of five hundred miles from the sea. The bed of this river was almost entirely composed of chalcedonies, agates, and other flinty pebbles. Here Mr. B. takes an opportunity of drawing an interesting parallel between the Northern and Southern extremities of Africa; Egypt and the Cape of Good Hope; between the Nile and the Orange river:

"Egypt and the colony of the Cape lie under the same parallels of latitude: they have the same kind of climate, the same soil, the same saline waters: they both abound in natron; and the same plants and the same animals are common to both. Egypt without the Nile would be a desert waste, producing only a few saline and succuline plants like those of the Great Karroo, where rain full as seldom falls as in the former country; and the sandy soil of the Cape, with the assistance of water, is as fertile as that of Egypt possibly can be."

The

The next chapter relates to a journey from Graaff Reynet along the ſea-coaſt to the Cape. In this part of the work there is leſs of novelty than in any of the preceding; but we cannot paſs without notice the pleaſing picture which Mr. B. has given of the progreſs made by the Moravian miſſionaries in bringing together, and in inſtructing not only in the Chriſtian doctrine, but alſo in uſeful labour, five or ſix hundred poor Hottentots.

Mr. B. conducts us, in the concluding chapter, to the northern extremity of the colony; into that part of the country inhabited by a tribe of Hottentots called the Namaaquas. He has deſcribed the ſituation of Saldanha Bay, which lies in lat. 33° 10′ S. and long. 18° E. and about 18 leagues diſtant N. W. from Table Bay. This bay is the only good harbour on the weſtern coaſt of Africa, from the Mediterranean to the Cape. The great objection to it as a proper place for repairing, or even building ſhips, is the want of wood and water, for which, however, our author ſuggeſts a remedy, which with regard to the wood might be found effectual; but whether a ſufficient ſupply of freſh water could be ſo eaſily obtained as he imagines, may at leaſt be matter of doubt. Had the Cape remained in our hands the trial would undoubtedly have been worth attempting, and it was highly laudable in Mr. B. to ſuggeſt the hint, of which hereafter a proper uſe may be made.

In the courſe of this journey, Mr. B. met with an Iriſhman and an Engliſhman, both of them probably deſerters from the army or the navy. The firſt had taken up the profeſſion of a *water finder*, and under the pretence of great wiſdom had duped the people of the country out of large ſums of money. He alſo deſcribes the hoſpitable treatment which he received at the hovel of a Dutch peaſant, which was ſituated at the entrance of a narrow defile between two ranges of mountains:

"The figure that preſented itſelf at the door truly repreſented a being of a different country from that which we had left behind. It was a tall old man, with a thin ſallow viſage, and a beard of dingy black, that extending to the eyes, where it met the ſtraggling hair of the forehead, obſcured the face like a viſor. Never was a finer figure for the inhabitant of a black tower, or enchanted caſtle, in the page of a romance. Not accuſtomed to receive ſtrangers, he ſeemed, on our arrival, to be ſomewhat agitated. In one corner of the chimney of his hovel, which conſiſted of one apartment, ſat an old Hottentot woman, over whoſe head had paſſed at leaſt a century of years. To her natural ſallow complexion was ſuperadded

no ſmall quantity of ſoot, ſo that ſhe was at leaſt as black as her bearded maſter. A female ſlave next made her appearance, of a piece with the two former. The faggot preſently crackled on the hearth; a quarter of a ſheep was laid on the coals to broil; and the repaſt was ſpeedily ſerved up on the lid of an old cheſt, for want of a table, and covered with a remnant of the ſame piece of cloth worn as a petticoat by the female ſlave, which it ſeemed not unlikely had alſo once been employed in the ſame ſort of ſervice.

"It turned out in converſation that the old gentleman had long reſided in this ſequeſtered ſpot, far removed from all ſociety; without wife or child, relation or friend, and any human being to converſe with or confide in, except the old Hottentot and the ſlave, who were his only inmates, and a tribe of Hottentots in ſtraw huts without. With the appearance of wretchedneſs and extreme poverty, he poſſeſſed immenſe herds of ſheep and cattle, and had ſeveral large ſums of money placed out at intereſt. He was literally what the world has properly called a miſer. In juſtice, however, to the old man, he was one of the civileſt creatures imaginable. On our return we were much indebted to him for the aſſiſtance of his cattle, which he very obligingly ſent forward to fall in with our waggons on the midſt of the Karroo deſert.

"It is ſingular enough that a brother and a ſiſter of this man, both old and both unmarried, ſhould each have their habitations in ſeparate and diſtant corners of theſe mountains, and live, like him, entirely in the ſociety of Hottentots: they are nearly related to one of the richeſt men in the Cape."

From this view of Mr. Barrow's volume, which, perhaps, is already too much extended, but which, with ſatisfaction to ourſelves, we could have carried to a much greater length, the reader will be able to form a judgment of the whole. It cannot be expected that an idea fully adequate to the merits of ſuch a work as Mr. Barrow's can be given in the compaſs of a few pages. Where the matter is ſo varied, and the country and inhabitants which an author has to deſcribe are ſo little known, we naturally wiſh to bring before the public more facts that tend to illuſtrate the human character, and to increaſe the ſtock of our natural knowledge, than the limits of a Review will admit. We ſhould take leave of theſe travels with regret, did we not anticipate the pleaſure of peruſing the Second Volume, an account of which we hope very ſhortly to lay before the public.

ART. LXV. *The Picture; Verſes written in London, May 28, 1803, ſuggeſted by a magnificent Landſcape of Rubens, in Poſſeſſion of Sir George Beaumont.* By the Rev. W. Liſle Bowles. 4to. pp. 20. price 2*s.* Cadell and Davies, London, 1803.

WERE poetical merit generally eſtimated according to the canon of the Dutch critic, who pronounced one of his countrymen to be a bard of the firſt celebrity becauſe he had publiſhed a volume of poems as thick as a cheeſe, Mr. B. would not gain much credit by the piece at preſent under our conſideration, the dimenſions of which are ſomewhat of the ſcantieſt: but we apprehend that it will confer diſtinguiſhed honour upon him in the opinion of readers who have a "diſcerning ſenſe" of elegance; and who prefer a highly finiſhed poem, however brief, to the ſlovenly and languid effuſions of the poetaſter.

The ſubject which Mr. B. has illuſtrated by his genius in this compoſition, is a magnificent landſcape of Rubens, in the poſſeſſion of Sir George Beaumont, the beauties of which he enumerates in flowing and melodious blank verſe, occaſionally interſperſing a few moral reflections, in order to relieve the ſameneſs of "pure deſcription." As a ſpecimen of his manner, we ſhall tranſcribe the brief notice which he gives, towards the concluſion of his poem, of the ſtyle of different maſters of the art of painting.

"Nor thoughts like theſe
Shall One, who bears an Engliſh heart, diſown;
THOU ſhalt approve them, but thy nicer eye,
BEAUMONT, ſhall trace the maſter-ſtrokes of art,
And view th' aſſemblage of the finiſh'd piece,
As with his ſkill, who form'd it: Darker views
Savage, with ſolitary pines, hung high
Amid the broken craggs, (where ſcowling wait
The fierce banditti,) ſtern Salvator's hand
Shall aptly ſhade: O'er Pouſſin's cluſt'ring domes,
With ampler umbrage, the black woods ſhall hang,
Beneath whoſe waving gloom the ſudden flaſh
Of broken light, upon the brawling ſtream
Is flung below.
Aërial Claude ſhall paint,
The gray fane peering o'er the ſummer woods,
The azure lake below, or diſtant ſeas,
And ſails, in the pellucid atmoſphere,
Soft-gleaming to the morn: Dark on the rock,
Where the red light'ning burſts, ſhall WILSON ſtand,
Like mighty Shakſpeare, whom the imps of fire
Await; nor oh, ſweet Gainſborough, ſhall THEE
The Muſe forget, whoſe ſimple landſcape ſmiles

 Attractive,

Attractive, whether we delight to view
The cottage chimney through the high wood peep,
Or beggar-beauty ſtretch her little hand
With look moſt innocent; or homeward kine
Wind thro' the hollow road at eventide,
Or brouze the ſtraggling branches.
Scenes like theſe
Shall charm all hearts, while truth and beauty live,
And Nature's pictured lovelineſs ſhall own
Each maſter's various touch; but chiefly THOU,
Great Rubens, ſhalt the willing ſenſes lead,
Enamour'd of the varied imagery
That fills the vivid canvaſs, ſwelling ſtill
On the enraptur'd eye of taſte, and ſtill
New charms unfolding; though minute, yet grand,
Simple yet moſt luxuriant, every light
And every ſhade, greatly oppoſed, and all
Subſerving to one magical effect,
Of Truth and Harmony.

We are happy to learn, from a note which occurs at page 19, that Meſſrs. Sotheby, Rogers, Howley, W. Spencer, and Bowles, are about to unite their talents in a new tranſlation of Theocritus; the picturesque character of whoſe Idyls it is intended to illuſtrate by the pencil of Sir George Beaumont. Such a ſplendid aſſociation of firſt-rate abilities cannot fail to produce a highly intereſting reſult.

ART. LXVI. *Shaw's General Zoology.*

(Concluded from page 74.)

THE importance of the ſtudy of Ichthyology may be inferred from the conſideration that mankind, in various countries, derive a large portion of the neceſſaries of life, as well as of its luxuries, from the inhabitants of the waters; from the magnitude of the commercial eſtabliſhments to which the fiſheries give birth; the thouſands to whoſe induſtry they furniſh employment; and to this country, in particular, from their contributing moſt eſſentially to maintain that naval ſuperiority to which we are indebted for the preſervation of our independence. On the ſupreme delight of enſnaring the numerous progeny of our rivers, lakes, and mountain-ſtreams, we feel ourſelves unqualified to enlarge; but, as a ſubject of ſcientific reſearch, or of liberal amuſement, we may recommend to our readers the natural hiſtory of fiſhes, which poſſeſſes at leaſt an equal claim to their attention,

tention, with the ſtudy of many other claſſes of the animal kingdom.

Having in a former number endeavoured to exhibit a general view of the ſubjects belonging to this department, which have been introduced to our notice ſince the laſt impreſſion of the *Syſtema Naturæ*, and which materially enhance the value of the work before us; and having expreſſed our conviction of the ability diſplayed in its execution, we ſhall proceed to the diſcharge of a leſs pleaſing part of our office, by pointing out what we conceive to be its defects.

Notwithſtanding what the author has advanced to the contrary, we are of opinion that a general deſcription both of the external and internal parts of fiſhes, conſidered as a diſtinct tribe of animals, might be better detailed than it is in the works of the ingenious Dr. Monro. At the commencement of his valuable work, "On the Structure and Phyſiology of Fiſhes," we are informed that it was not deſigned to form a complete treatiſe on the economy of theſe animals; but intended to compriſe ſuch circumſtances only as had been either entirely overlooked or imperfectly deſcribed by former writers. In place of the introduction prefixed to this volume, we ſhould, therefore, have been better pleaſed with a more comprehenſive ſketch by the author, modelled on the preliminary chapters of Leſke, Blumenbach, or Cuvier. Nor are we ſatisfied, that Dr. Shaw has evinced his uſual diſcrimination in ſelecting the materials for which he is indebted to Dr. Monro. The exiſtence of an abſorbent ſyſtem in fiſhes being now no longer queſtioned, a minute deſcription of it was unneceſſary, and appears to be miſplaced in a chapter where the whole of what relates to the ſtructure and economy of theſe animals is compreſſed within the limits of a dozen pages. The author has, moreover, neglected to acquaint us with two circumſtances more important than their diſtribution, namely, that theſe veſſels are deſtitute of valves, and that there is not a ſingle conglobate gland throughout the whole ſyſtem.

The brain, we are told, is formed pretty much in the ſame way as in fowls; only it may be obſerved, that the poſterior lobes bear a greater proportion to the anterior. Yet Dr. Monro aſſures us, that the ſubdiviſions of the brain and cerebellum are more numerous than in the viviparous quadrupeds and birds; and, in addition to this, we may remark, that, contrary to what takes place in all other animals, the brain is not of ſufficient ſize to occupy completely the cavity in which it is lodged, and that a gelatinous fluid, effuſed into a cellular tiſſue, is placed between it and the ſkull. On

the comparative magnitude of the brain, the author is, in like manner, ſilent.*

Something ſo peculiar takes place in the diſtribution of the optic nerves within the ſkull of a few ſpecies, in which the nerve of the right eye, originating in the left hemiſphere of the brain, paſſes to its termination through a fiſſure in the body of the nerve on the oppoſite ſide, that it ought to have been adduced as a remarkable inſtance of departure from the uſual conformation. Whatever be the nature of that union of the nerves which exiſt in the human body, a connection analogous to it probably obtains in fiſhes. *Neceſſarium videtur nervos opticos uniri. Cum in piſcibus non confundantur qua ſe ad orbitæ aditum decuſſant, habent ingentem tranſverſam conjunctionem proxime cerebrum.* HALLER.

In the deſcription of the eye, we are at a loſs to comprehend why the following particulars were overlooked, viz. The flatneſs of the cornea: the ſolid nucleus of the lens; the abſence of ciliary proceſſes; the metallic luſtre of the external layer of the choroid coat; and the muſcular ring attached to the *tunica ruyſchiana*. The valvular proceſs which defends the eye in *Bodianus palpebratus*, the double pupil of *Cobitis Anableps*, and the ſingular poſition of the organs of viſion in *Stylephorus*, are peculiarities which merited a place in theſe preliminary remarks.

If the *cirrhi* attached to the mouths of different ſpecies, be, as has been repreſented, copiouſly provided with nerves and blood-veſſels, we ſhould be inclined to regard them rather as organs of *touch*, than deſigned to anſwer the purpoſe which in the body of this work is aſſigned to them.

Dr. Shaw adopts the common opinion reſpecting the uſe of the air-bladder; but adds, that the complete theory of its operation does not ſeem to have been yet explained. We are diſpoſed to think with Dr. Monro, that the air contained in it is a ſecreted fluid; and to conſider its function as allied in part to that of the *branchiæ*, an opinion firſt ſuggeſted, we believe, by Kölreuter. The ſpleen is ſaid to be placed near the back-bone, and at a place where it is ſubject to an alternate conſtriction and dilatation from the preſſure of the air-bag, which is ſituated in its neighbourhood: but no intimation is given of Dr. Monro having obſerved two ſpleens in the Angel fiſh, and not fewer than ſeven in the

* Piſcibus familiare videtur ut magna corporis moles minuto cerebro animetur. STENO: *Element. Myolog. Specimen.* p. 106; where the reader may find an anticipation of the ſentiments of ſome modern phyſiologiſts, concerning the diſtinct offices of the brain and nerves.

Sturgeon.

Sturgeon. We are induced to mention theſe facts, as a ſimilar ſtructure of that viſcus occurs in the porpoiſe, and, if our information be correct, in ſome amphibious quadrupeds of warm blood, that procure their prey under water. In the enumeration of the viſcera, Dr. S. has forgotten the urinary bladder; and all the knowledge that can be gleaned from his preface concerning the diſtinction of the ſexes is compriſed in the following ſentence:

"The ova in the female are diſpoſed in two large oblong bodies, one on each ſide of the abdomen; and the milt or ſoft roe of the male appears in a ſimilar form in the ſame part."

Though it might be difficult to give a general idea of the Oſteology of animals that differ ſo widely as fiſhes from each other, yet in an eſſay which profeſſes to conſider them as a diſtinct tribe of animals, an account of the ſtructure of the ſpine, and of the bones that are embedded in the muſcles without any connection with the reſt of the ſkeleton, might have been introduced with propriety. Our readers will learn with ſurpriſe that, beſides other omiſſions of conſequence, the author has neglected to ſupply them with a definition of the claſs of animals, which he has undertaken to deſcribe.

Independent of ſtructure (and of phyſiological conſiderations, in ſearch of which the eye ranges in vain amidſt the unproductive pages of Dr. Shaw) there are ſome general queſtions connected with the ſubject which might be diſcuſſed with more advantage in the introduction, than under the hiſtory of any particular ſpecies; the migration of the vagrant tribes, for inſtance, of which no notice is taken in any part of the work as far as it has yet proceeded, if we except the information conveyed in the following extract:

"The long migration of the mackerel, as well as of the herring, ſeems at preſent to be greatly called in queſtion: and it is thought more probable that the ſhoals which appear in ſuch abundance round the more temperate European coaſts, in reality reſide during the winter at no very great diſtance; immerſing themſelves in the ſoft bottom, and remaining in a ſtate of torpidity, from which they are awakened by the warmth of the returning ſpring, and gradually recover their former activity."

The author adds in a note:

"Of their torpidity, the Count de Cepède adduces the teſtimony of an eye-witneſs; viz. M. Pleville-le-Peley, who, about the coaſts of Hudſon's Bay, obſerved the mud, at the bottom of the ſmall clear hollows incruſted with ice, round thoſe coaſts, entirely briſtled over by the tails of mackerels embedded in it nearly three parts of their length."

To

To the habits and economy of a large portion of the animals now under conſideration we are almoſt wholly ſtrangers. Many of them, natives of regions rarely viſited by a ſcientific obſerver, have been deſcribed from a ſingle ſpecimen only; and the claim of others to a place in the ſyſtem reſts on the preſumed authenticity of drawings. The element they inhabit impoſes a powerful check on our curioſity; and, combined with other circumſtances, reduces all that can be advanced with ſafety, in regard to numerous individuals, to the delineation of their forms, and the inſertion of their names in a ſyſtematic catalogue. We wiſh the author had more frequently ſtudied to relieve the uniformity proceeding from theſe cauſes, by enlarging, whenever a ſuitable occaſion offered, on the more remarkable properties of ſeveral of the ſpecies. We hold in no veneration that herd of compilers who think their object can never be accompliſhed, unleſs they collect every thing that has even the moſt remote bearing on their theme.—

Νήπιοι, οὐκ ἴσασιν ὅσῳ πλέον ἥμισυ πάντος.

But we are apprehenſive leſt the author, by adhering ſomewhat too ſtrictly to an oppoſite mode of conduct, ſhould incur the riſque of leſſening the number of his admirers, and of making fewer proſelytes to the delightful purſuits of natural hiſtory. We cannot help expreſſing ſome ſurpriſe that Dr. Anderſon's account of the migrations of the eel was not mentioned in the hiſtory of that animal. Our readers, perhaps, will require no apology for its appearance in this place, or for our embracing an opportunity of recalling their attention to a work which was dropped, we believe, for want of patronage; but which we would recommend to their peruſal, as containing many intereſting communications on the ſubjects it profeſſes to embrace.*

"Having occaſion," ſays Dr. Anderſon, "to walk frequently on the banks of the river Dee, in Aberdeenſhire, I could not help obſerving a black kind of mark that ran along the edge of the river in an uninterrupted line wherever I went, very like the dark mark left by water on many occaſions along the margin of pools where the bottom is gravel: which line followed the bends and windings of the river, being often ſuddenly deflected by ſtones or other interruptions, without any breach of its continuity. This line had frequently caught my eye without attracting particular notice, till one time that I came to a projecting point, round which the current was briſker than uſual. At this place I perceived a

* Recreations in Agriculture, Natural Hiſtory, Arts, and Miſcellaneous Literature: by James Anderſon, LL. D. 6 vols. 8vo. 1802.

kind

kind of vibratory motion in the line; and, on looking closer, I observed something like the wriggling of an animal making efforts to stem the current. I stooped down, and put my hand into the water to touch the line, with a view to examine what it was. The line became discontinued when my hand approached it, and I could touch nothing of it; but it united again as soon as my hand was withdrawn. This induced me to examine it very nearly; and I then perceived, to my no small astonishment, that this line was formed by an uninterrupted series of small eels, moving forward with great celerity, exactly in the same manner as a long file of soldiers might march, without interruption. These eels did not, as nearly as I can recollect, exceed half an inch in length, but were in all respects perfectly formed like the common eel. The line might, perhaps, on an average, consist of from twenty to thirty in breadth; and the individuals being in different degrees of forwardness, and close to each other, made the line uniform, without any thing like links or breaks of any sort. I observed them with great attention for a long time; and am convinced that they advanced with a progress of not less than four miles an hour. This progress continued, without interruption night or day, for eight days together that I remained at that place: how much longer it continued I had no opportunity of learning; but there was no apparent diminution of it when I left the place. I crossed the river on purpose to observe whether there was a similar line on the opposite side, and found it in all respects the same."

But to return to our author. It would be doing him great injustice to deny that there are many articles in the present volume which are calculated to convey both pleasure and instruction to the general class of readers. As a farther specimen, we select the history of the Remora; omitting, however, a long passage of Pliny, *done into English* by Philemon Holland.

Mediterranean Remora.

"Echeneis Remora. *E. fusca, striis capitis octo-decim, cauda subfurcata.*

Brown Remora, with about eighteen bars on the shield, and subfurcated tail.

Echeneis Remora. *E. cauda bifurca, striis capitis* 18. *Lin. Syst. Nat. p.* 446.

Remora Imperati et Aldrovandi. *Will. p.* 119.

Echeneis pinna caudali semilunata. *Bloch. Pl.* 172.

"The extraordinary faculty which this fish possesses, of adhering at pleasure with the utmost tenacity to any moderately flat surface, was not unobserved by the ancients, and is described, in terms of considerable luxuriance, by Pliny in particular; who, giving way to the popular prejudices of his time, represents the Remora as possessing the power of stopping a vessel in full sail, so as to render it perfectly immoveable in the midst of the sea.

"The

"The real fact is, that the Remora, being a fish of very weak powers of fin, takes the advantage of attaching itself to any large swimming body, whether animate or inanimate, which it happens to encounter; adhering to ships as well as whales, sharks, and many other of the larger fishes: it has even been observed by Commerson, that the Remora is so ill calculated for supporting a long and laborious course in the water, that when left to its own exertions, it generally swims on its back, and that in an unsteady and feeble manner. It is therefore necessary that it should avail itself of the occasional assistance of some larger floating body. For this purpose, the upper part of the head is wonderfully constituted; presenting a large, flat, oval shield or area, traversed by numerous dissepiments or partitions, each of which is fringed at the edge by a row of very numerous perpendicular teeth or filaments, while the whole area or oval space is strengthened by a longitudinal division or septum. So strong is the power of adhesion which the fish by this apparatus is enabled to exert, that we are assured by Commerson, whose observations on this subject are detailed by Cepède, that, on applying his thumb to the shield of a living Remora, it was affected not only with a strong stupor, but even with a kind of paralysis, which continued for a considerable time after withdrawing his hand. When attached, as is frequently the case, to the skin of a shark or other large fish, it quits not its hold when the former is drawn out of the water, but continues adhering after the death of the animal; nor is it easy for the strongest arm to effect its separation, unless it be pulled in a lateral direction, so as to force it to slide along the surface of the skin. When a great many of these fishes are thus adhering at once to the sides of a ship, they may in some degree retard its motion, by preventing its easy passage through the water, in the same manner as any other extraneous substances are known to do; nor can it be thought improbable that the adhesion of these fishes in considerable numbers to the side of a small canoe, in the earlier ages of mankind, may have operated still more powerfully, and not only have impeded its progress, but even have caused it to incline towards one side; and the tale once related might have gradually grown into the exaggerated powers afterward ascribed to the animal.

"A second reason of the Remora's thus attaching itself to the larger fishes and to vessels is, that it may be in readiness to avail itself on the occasional remains of the prey of the former, or of the offals thrown out from the latter; being naturally voracious, and by no means delicate in its choice, and frequently following vessels in great numbers in order to obtain occasional supplies of food. The Remora, also, especially in stormy weather, adheres to rocks, like the Lump-Fish and some others.

"The Remora is principally an inhabitant of the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas. Its general colour is an uniform brown, without any material difference of shade either on the upper or lower surface. It sometimes, however, varies in colour; and Commerson assures us, that when a great number of these fishes are attached either to the side of a vessel or to a large fish, it is not very uncommon

mon to ſee one or two which differ from the reſt, in being of a whitiſh colour. The ſkin is ſmooth and deſtitute of ſcales, but marked with numerous impreſſed points or pores: the mouth is large, and furniſhed with very numerous ſmall teeth; and the lower jaw is rather longer than the upper: the eyes are ſmall, with yellow irides: the lateral line commences above the pectoral fins, and from thence pretty ſuddenly deſcending, runs ſtraight in the tail, which is of a ſlightly forked or rather lunated form. The number of tranſverſe diviſions on the ſhield of this ſpecies varies from ſixteen to twenty, but the moſt general number is eighteen. The fiſh grows to the length of about eighteen inches.

At the end of the genus LABRUS, Dr. Shaw makes the following apology:—"It is by no means improbable, that many of the *Labri* may be rather varieties than ſpecies truly diſtinct; and it may be added, that ſeveral may with equal propriety rank under the genus *Sparus*. It follows, therefore, that any repetitions which in arranging theſe two genera may, through overſight, have eaſily taken place, muſt be rather an advantage than an inconvenience, as tending to facilitate the inveſtigation of the ſpecies." On the former account no blame can attach to the author; but it is with pain we obſerve, in the latter part of this paragraph, an attempt made to palliate a practice that is indefenſible, and which it certainly was in his power to have avoided. The inſtances where a ſpecies occurs twice are, probably, not numerous. A ſingle example was brought forward in our Review for January. Another has ſince occurred to us. The *Chætodon unimaculatus*, deſcribed page 335, occurs a ſecond time, page 366. The following, which are repetitions in appearance merely, ſhow that due attention has not been uſed in framing the trivial names.

SPARUS MELANURUS.

Page 419 is	Page 429 is
Sp. Oblada *Cep.*	Perca melanura *Linn.*

419. SPARUS ARGENTEUS.	438.
Sp. argentatus *Linn.*	Perca argentea *Linn.*

415. SPARUS VITTATUS.	465.
Sp. vittatus *Bloch.*	Perca vittata *Linn.*

424. SPARUS BRUNNICHII.	462.
Sp. Bogaraveo *Cep.*	Labrus fuſcus *Linn.*
	Lutianus Brunnichii *Cep.*

424. SPARUS MASSILIENSIS.	462.
Sp. Maſſilienſis *Cep.*	Labrus unimaculatus *Linn.*
	Lutianus Maſſilienſis *Cep.*

SPARUS

435. Sparus Sinensis. 466.
Sp. Sinensis *Cep.* Perca Sinensis *Linn.*

Another source of confusion arises from appropriating to new species those names which, by a change of arrangement, are become obsolete in regard to the species they were originally employed to designate. *Sparus palpebratus*, page 464, is the *Perca palpebrosa* of Linnæus. The *Sp. palpebratus* of Boddaert and Gmelin is transferred, on account of the spines on its opercula, to the new genus *Bodianus*. The fish described page 508 is not the *Labrus fuscus* of Linnæus, but a distinct species introduced by Cepède.

On some occasions we have been led to think that Dr. Shaw has trusted too implicitly to the accuracy of former compilers. Had he consulted Dr. Pallas's description of the *Gymnotus albifrons*, he would, doubtless, have informed his readers, that it is not less distinguished from its congeners by the circumstance to which it owes its specific name, than by the extraordinary length of the tail; a distinct caudal fin; and the very unusual conformation of the anal fin, which is not connected with the body of the animal, except at the insertion of its radii. In justification of the author, it may, we are aware, be alleged, that the specimen examined by Dr. Pallas had been kept many years in spirit; and that what appeared to be a natural peculiarity was, in effect, the consequence of accidental injury. The truth, however, we suspect to be, that Dr. S.'s description was originally abridged from Gmelin; as a very material correction made by Cepède, like an afterthought, meets the reader's eye only in the shape of an annotation. That the *Spicilegia* of Pallas were not consulted, may be inferred from the remarks concerning another species, (the *G. fasciatus,*) which are ascribed to Dr. Bloch; whereas the merit of them, whatever it may be, is solely due to Dr. Pallas.

We think the author entitled to considerable praise for the skill he has manifested in the construction of the specific characters; but we are of opinion, that, both in this and the preceding volumes, too much stress has been laid on colour. A distinction so fugitive ought, in the generality of cases, and whenever its use can be dispensed with, to occupy only a subordinate station. Regarding the number of rays in the fins, more especially when the fins are long and shallow, as a character on which no very great dependence can be placed, the author has not been solicitous, except in a few instances, to introduce it into the present work. As we coincide with him in sentiment, we cannot seriously lament its absence. But as it would have added little to the bulk of his performance,

if expreſſed in the uſual compendious form, we wiſh he had complied with the prevailing taſte of naturaliſts. Dr. Shaw has, we muſt confeſs, exceeded our expectation, by aſſigning ſpecific characters in genera that include only a ſingle ſpecies.

On peruſing the Hiſtory of Fiſhes by Cepède, we were ſurprized to find the nomenclature of many of his genera ſo little conformable to the rules eſtabliſhed by Linnæus for the formation of generic names. *Gobiomorus* is, as far as we recollect, the only exceptionable inſtance of this kind that Dr. Shaw has retained: but *Kurtus*, *Macrourus*, and a pretty long liſt of trivial names in the volume before us, tranſgreſs another canon of the Swediſh ſage, reſpecting the orthography of Greek derivatives:—*Cum nomina Græca Latinis pingantur literis, debent et literæ Græcæ, ab omni ævo a Romanis mutatæ, mutari.* Crit. Bot. § 247.

The language, as our readers will perceive from the paſſages we have quoted, is ſuch as might have been expected from a writer of conſummate taſte and erudition; and bears no reſemblance whatever to the nauſeating jargon of ſome late botanical publications. In the following paſſage we have remarked a whimſical inſtance of obſcurity, originating, we preſume, in a wiſh to avoid technical expreſſions:—"One might imagine that ſo great a number of young, confined in ſo ſmall a ſpace, might injure each other by the briſkneſs of their motions: but this is prevented *by the curious diſpoſition of fibres and cellules among which they are diſtributed, as well as by the peculiar fluid with which they are ſurrounded.*" We imagine the paſſage would have been equally correct, and more intelligible, if, in place of the words printed in Italics, he had ſaid:—"by the fluid contents and inveſting membranes of the ova."

In the ſubſequent volumes, we wiſh that Dr. Shaw would facilitate the inveſtigation of ſpecies, by prefixing to each ſection a ſynoptic table of the genera; by retaining in the running title only the generic name; and where the ſpecies are numerous, by marking the ſubdiviſions at the head of each page. The index greatly needs improvement.

The plates, we are willing to admit, are accurate, and, in general, ſuperior to what we meet with in books of this deſcription. But they borrow from, rather than reflect luſtre on, the very eminent artiſt whoſe name is aſſociated with that of the author in the title-page.

We wait with impatience for the continuation of this performance; and hope, that Dr. Shaw will infuſe into it a larger portion of that Promethean flame which diffuſes warmth and animation over the claſſical pages of the Naturaliſt's Miſcellany.

ART. LXVII. *History of the French Consulate under Napoleon Buonaparte; being an authentic Narrative of his Administration, including a Sketch of his Life, interspersed with curious Anecdotes, and a faithful Statement of interesting Transactions.* By W. Barré. 8vo. pp. 535. Price 10*s.* 6*d.* Hurst. London, 1804.

IN discussing the characters and actions of eminent persons, praise and blame are rarely dealt forth with moderation. Panegyrists and detractors seem alike to think, that in order to gain credit they must preserve consistency; and that, to allow the least demerit on one hand, or to forbear from any invective on the other, would be a base dereliction of the general principle they intend to enforce.

Mr. Barré, who, in the course of this work, describes himself a French protestant, is enabled from personal observation to relate many facts, and furnish many remarks on the conduct of the first consul of France. He detests the tyranny, hypocrisy, cruelty, and atheism of the person whose life he describes, and in that detestation we cordially join: but to render any remarks on such subjects generally beneficial, they should be accompanied with candour, and recommended by moderation. Without these, truth will appear calumny, and every unauthenticated anecdote the effusion of malice, while sound reflections and judicious deductions will be neglected as the intemperate effusions of party zeal, or the ebullitions of political rancour.

The work before us is divided into ten chapters. It begins with the accounts often, and, we believe, truly, given, of the penury of Bonaparte's family*; his early education, and the first of his revolutionary exploits at Toulon, and in the massacre of the *treize Vendemiaire*. From the care with which these circumstances are enumerated, we should have expected that more ample notice would have been taken of the campaign in Italy in 1796, than is contained in these few words; "The campaign in Italy was extremely brilliant, and withal revolutionary." We are ready to agree that, even in that campaign, the success which attended Bonaparte has caused his talents to be over-rated; but, in a work where all his faults are collected, and repeated again and again, lest they should have escaped the memory of the reader, it seems not quite fair to afford such slight means of discussing a series of events, many of which must, after making all possible deductions, produce a

* Mr. Barré insists strongly on an undisputed fact, that the proper orthography of this name is Buonaparte; but he gives a good reason for the slight change when he observes, (p. 512) that Italians in France are apt to Frenchify their names.

balance

balance in favour of Bonaparte. That campaign must do him honour as a military man, though it leaves on the mind the most horrible impressions of his character in every other respect. The passage of St. Bernard in 1800 is treated in a manner equally unsatisfactory, producing nothing from this author but a cold compliment to the soldiers for dragging the artillery up the mountain; a labour which rendered their passage more astonishing than that of the Carthaginians under Hannibal, "who had no artillery to drag."

From these specimens the reader will perceive that M. Barré is not disposed to make any concessions favourable to the first consul; but, on the other hand, he has used indefatigable diligence in collecting every circumstance which can make an impression to his disadvantage, whether derived from his birth, family, education, personal character, political or matrimonial connections, or from the conduct of those venal and abject wretches whom he employs as tools in his tyranny over the degraded nominal republic of France. In many places, the observations of M. Barré on these subjects are forcible and just. His details want clearness, being too often interrupted by the reflections of the author, and by sarcasms and ironical hints introduced in parentheses. He frequently digresses for the purpose of giving anecdotes of people in various departments of the state, descending even to the underlings in offices, and recapitulating charges of peculation, bribery, stock-jobbing, and the purchase or acquisition of national domains, by which the upstarts of the revolution have obtained immense fortunes.

On the use Bonaparte has made of his ill-gotten power; on his show of mercy but real cruelty in the recal of emigrants; on the mockery of religion in its pretended re-establishment, while an oath is imposed on every catholic priest, compelling him to disclose the secrets intrusted to him in confession; on the insulting luxury and nauseous immorality of the consul's whole family; on the vices of that government which multiplies taxes while the means of industry are suppressed; which draws from the people the small remains of their feeble resources by lotteries, of which there are eighteen in every month, and in which the poor are permitted to adventure for the small sum of five-pence sterling; on the barbarous apathy with which these ruined wretches are told, when they cry for bread, that they may have *a Rumford soup* for three farthings; on all these and some other subjects, the author makes reflections equally creditable to his judgment and his feelings. Perhaps he is right in his calculation, that the great majority of the French nation sincerely wish for the restoration of the

royal family; but we think him too ſanguine in the opinion, that, on the appearance of a French prince in the Weſtern departments, a force would join him ſufficient to effect the re-eſtabliſhment of the throne; and that the firſt conſul, abandoned by thoſe on whom he moſt relies, and deteſted by the whole nation, whom he oppreſſes and inſults, would find at once the termination of his power and his exiſtence.

The author apologizes for the ſeverity with which he ſpeaks of Bonaparte and others, by affirming that his narrative is grounded on very valuable documents which he has brought with him from France. "Thoſe," he ſays, "who might find too much acerbity in the language, ſhould recollect, that in mentioning robberies and murders, impoſture and hypocriſy, apoſtacy and perjury, craftineſs and baſeneſs, it would have been unbecoming not to animadvert on the guilty individuals who deſerve to be branded with infamy. When facts are proved *qualifications* are unjuſtifiable." Taking this apology in its full latitude, we think the author would have made his work more valuable by retrenching ſome animadverſions which are too frequently repeated; by ſoftening ſome phraſes which are too coarſe for a production which aſſumes the title of a hiſtory; and by omitting ſome few jokes *à la mode de Paris*, and charges againſt Buonaparte and his family, the mention of which can anſwer no good purpoſe.

In points of hiſtory M. Barré is ſometimes wrong through negligence; for example, he aſcribes (p. 90) the deſtruction of the empire of Tippoo Saib to Lord Cornwallis; and he ſtates (p. 165), that on the famous 10th of November 1799, Bonaparte went to the council of elders *after* the attempt had been made to ſtab him in the council of five hundred; whereas it is well known, and M. Barré himſelf quotes (p. 182) the words of a proclamation which prove, that he *firſt* preſented himſelf to the elders, and conſequently that it was not "*after* his ſpeedy and lucky retreat from the council of five hundred."

M. Barré is a Frenchman, and informs us, that he tranſlated Sir Robert Wilſon's hiſtory of the expedition into his own language, and a pamphlet from the French into ours. It would have been well if he had written his preſent work in French, or at leaſt obtained the aſſiſtance of ſome Engliſhman in correcting the ſtyle. The galliciſms and falſe conſtructions which occur in every page are not accidental or partial blemiſhes, but productive at once of fatigue and diſguſt by their frequency and their groſſneſs.

ART. LXVIII. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London,* for the Year 1801. Both Parts.

AGREEABLY to the plan which we have adopted, we revert to the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1801, being the firſt year of this century; a volume containing many papers of conſiderable importance.

I. *The* Croonian Lecture. *On the Irritability of Nerves.* By Everard Home, Eſq.

THE nerves have been conſidered as chords not capable of contraction, except from their connection with the cellular membrane and blood veſſels. An unexpected retraction of the median nerve, which had been ſeparated from the cellular membrane, and was divided in an attempt to remove ſome extraordinary ſpaſmodic affections in a very irritable habit, (of which caſe a detailed account is given,) led to ſeveral experiments, chiefly on the phrenic nerve of horſes, from which Mr. H. concludes,

"That the nerves of an animal in health are capable of retracting themſelves when divided; and that this effect is entirely independent of the parts by which they are ſurrounded. That this contraction takes place in the nervous fibres themſelves, and is independent of the brain, from which they originate, and of the muſcles and other parts in which they terminate. That the contracted nerve exhibits to the eye an appearance of contraction in its fibres, not to be ſeen when it is in a relaxed ſtate." (p. 117.)

It has been a common opinion, that nerves ſerve only as a medium by which the muſcles may receive the influence of the brain, and by which that important organ may, in its turn, receive the impreſſions made upon the different parts of the body. The circulation of a nervous fluid has alſo been aſſumed; but, as Mr. H. juſtly obſerves, thoſe nervous agitations which are only partial, and the reſtoration of divided nerves to their functions, which ſometimes occurs, (the two ends uniting by a new ſubſtance) affords ſtrong objections to this hypotheſis.

II. *The* Bakerian Lecture. *On the Mechaniſm of the Eye.* By Thomas Young, M. D.

IN 1793 Dr. Young laid before the Royal Society a paper reſpecting that faculty by which the eye accommodates itſelf to the perception of objects at different diſtances. In that paper he ſuppoſed the cryſtalline lens to be muſcular; but ſome experiments of Mr. Home (Croonian Lecture, 1795) appearing

appearing to refute this hypothesis, the author gave it up, in a paper published in the Philosophical Transactions for 1800 Subsequent observations led Dr. Y. to resume so much of his former opinion as attributed to the crystalline lens a power of changing its figure.

After some general remarks on the sense of vision, and its analogy to hearing, Dr. Y. demonstrates the several dioptrical propositions of which he makes use in this paper. He then proceeds to the description of a very simple optometer, for the determination of the focal distance of the eye; the measurement and refractive powers of the several parts of which are investigated with all the precision of which the subject will admit.

The faculty of accommodating the eye to different distances, is enjoyed by individuals in various degrees; and there is even reason to think that this faculty diminishes as persons advance in years. Dr. Y. proceeds, with great ability, to examine what changes in the eye are necessary to produce this faculty, upon the several suppositions that the curvature of the cornea is diminished, or that the distance of the lens from the retina is increased, or that these causes act conjointly, or, finally, that the lens itself undergoes an alteration in its figure.

Several experiments are related, which shew that the curvature of the cornea is not concerned in the accommodation of the eye. Other experiments were made, to determine if any alteration took place in the length of the axis; but they all tended to prove that no such alteration takes place: an event which might have been deduced from the situation of the muscles of the eye. Although the opinion that the accommodation of the eye is owing, in part, to a change of curvature in the cornea, and, in part, to an elongation of the axis, is supported by names of the utmost respectability in science, Dr. Y. imagines, and we think with reason, that his experiments are fully sufficient to confute it.

It therefore remained only to inquire into the power of the crystalline lens to alter the focal length of the eye. Persons who, by couching, have been deprived of the lens, have appeared to possess the faculty of accommodating the eye to the distance of the object; but, on making fresh observations with the optometer, it appears that the actual focal distance of their eyes is totally unchangeable. From the aberration of the lateral rays Dr. Y. endeavours to deduce the necessity of admitting a change in the figure of the crystalline lens; and from the quantity of this aberration to investigate the form the lens actually assumes.

A number

A number of anatomical obſervations, in ſupport of this opinion, occupy the remainder of the paper.

III. *On the neceſſary Truth of certain Concluſions obtained by Means of imaginary Quantities.* By Robert Woodhouſe, A. M. Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge.

THE introduction of impoſſible quantities into mathematics has given occaſion to much controverſy; and theſe quantities have been ſaid to exhibit the ſingular paradox of leading to juſt concluſions, although in themſelves unintelligible. This paradox has been explained, upon the ground of their being analogous to intelligible quantities; but Mr. W. is utterly againſt the admiſſion of this explanation, and endeavours to demonſtrate ſtrictly why the concluſions obtained by means of impoſſible quantities are true. He is of opinion, that the introduction of the ſymbols repreſenting them may not only be defended as commodious, (being of eaſy and extenſive application,) but alſo as abſolutely neceſſary in the theory of equations, in order to attain general rules, and compendious methods.

Why Mr. W. does not mention the author whoſe opinion, in reſpect to the principle of analogy, he controverts, we cannot conceive: even the quotation expreſsly taken from him is without any reference. This defect we ſhall ſupply: the quotation is from the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1778, Vol. LXVIII. page 326, in a paper by the Rev. Mr. John Playfair, "On the Arithmetic of impoſſible Quantities."

IV. *On the Production of artificial Cold by Means of Muriate of Lime.* By Mr. Richard Walker.

MR. Walker here purſues the diſcovery of Prof. Lowitz reſpecting the cooling power of Muriate of Lime, by mixing of which with ſnow, quickſilver may be frozen, when the temperature of the mixture is at + 32° Fahr.: whereas a mixture of nitrous acid and ſnow requires to be cooled down to + 7°, to produce that effect.

The greateſt cold produced by a mixture of muriate of lime and ſnow was—73°; but Mr. W. produced a cold of—91½° by a mixture of 8 parts of ſnow with 10 of a diluted acid (formed of 8 parts of concentrated vitriolic acid, 4 of water, and 1 of rectified ſpirit of wine), the ſnow and acid being previouſly cooled to — 70° by two ſucceſſive operations with muriate of lime and ſnow. Mr. W. has alſo found that ice may be pro-

cured perfectly transparent by forming a coat of it on the *outside* of a veſſel containing a frigorific mixture.

V. *Account of a monſtrous Lamb.* By Mr. Anthony Carliſle.

THE whole ſtructure of this animal was perfect, except the head. The external ears were large, but the meatus externi were wanting; no veſtige of the eyes, noſe, or any of the apparatus of the mouth, could be diſcovered. The only opening in the head being formed of the epiglottis, and ſerving as a common paſſage to the oeſophagus and trachea. The whole cerebrum, and all its nerves, were deficient, as alſo many of the adjacent parts; but the cerebellum was perfect.

VI. *An anatomical Deſcription of a Male Rhinoceros.* By Mr. H. Leigh Thomas, Surgeon.

THIS animal was brought from the Eaſt Indies, and, after a ſhort ſtay in London, died of an inflammation of its lungs, before it had attained its full growth. The general internal ſtructure reſembled that of the horſe; but the eye, which was not much larger than that of a ſheep, exhibited a ſingular appearance. Four proceſſes, apparently muſcular, aroſe by diſtinct tendons from the internal and poſterior portion of the ſclerotica, into which they are ſtrongly inſerted, at equal diſtances from the optic nerve. Theſe proceſſes, paſſing forward between the coats, became gradually broader, and were inſenſibly loſt in the choroid, at the broadeſt diameter of the eye. Mr. T. imagines the uſe of theſe proceſſes is to accommodate the length of the axis of the eye to the diſtance of the object. The cryſtalline lens was nearly ſpherical, the anterior ſurface being only a little flattened.

VII. *Demonſtration of a Theorem, by which ſuch Portions of the Solidity of a Sphere are aſſigned as admit an Algebraic Expreſſion.* By Robert Woodhouſe, A.M. Fellow of Caius College, Cambridge.

THIS excellent mathematician here gives the demonſtration of a theorem, which had been announced to the National Inſtitute by M. Boſſut, but of which the analyſis had been withheld. The theorem is thus expreſſed.

"If a ſphere be pierced perpendicularly to the plane of one of its great circles, by two cylinders of which the axes paſs through the middle points of two radii that compoſe a diameter of this great circle, the two portions, thus taken away from the whole ſolidity of

of the ſphere, leave a remainder equal to two-ninths of the cube of the ſphere's diameter." (p. 153.)

VIII. *Account of the Diſcovery of Silver in Herland Copper Mine.* By the Rev. Malachy Hitchins.

HERLAND mine is about ſeven miles N. E. of St. Michael's Mount, on the Southern, and two miles and an half from the mouth of the river Hayle, on the Northern coaſt of the county of Cornwall. No ores of ſilver were diſcovered in this mine till it had been ſunk 110 fathoms from the ſurface; when, at the interſection of one of the copper lodes with a croſs lode, compoſed of quartz intermixed with a variety of other minerals, a conſiderable quantity of ſilver ore was found. On ſinking 32 fathoms farther, this production of ſilver ceaſed.

IX. *Account of an Elephant's Tuſk, in which the Iron Head of a Spear was found imbedded.* By Mr. Charles Combe, of Exeter College, Oxford.

A STRIKING peculiarity attended this inſertion of an extraneous matter within the ſubſtance of the tuſk, viz. that there was no mark of external injury. Hence it is probable that the ſpear head entered at the baſis of the trunk, the animal having been wounded perpendicularly between the proboſcis and the interior angle of the eye; and that the elephant had ſurvived the wound for many years.

X. *Deſcription of the Arſeniates of Copper, and of Iron, from the County of Cornwall.* By the Count de Bournon.

A NEW copper mine, called Huel Gorland, in the pariſh of Gwennap, having yielded many fine ſpecimens of theſe arſeniates, hitherto little known, this excellent mineraliſt, whoſe ſkill and experience are well known, was led to give a particular attention to them. After deſcribing the matrices in which they are found, one of which, from its deep yellow colour, and hematitic appearance, he propoſes to form into a new ſpecies, by the name of the yellow hematitic copper ore, he divides the arſeniates of copper into four ſpecies; for deſcriptions of which we muſt refer to the paper itſelf.

From the experiments of Mr. Chenevix, in the ſucceeding paper, it is evident that the Count de Bournon has divided theſe arſeniates in a manner perfectly accordant to their chemical analyſis; and has thus exhibited a ſtriking inſtance of the great improvements now making in the ſcience of mineralogy, by attention to the form and ſtructure of cryſtals.

XI. *Analyſis of the Arſeniates of Copper, and of Iron, deſcribed in the preceding Paper; likewiſe an Analyſis of the red octaedral Copper Ore of Cornwall; with Remarks on ſome particular Modes of Analyſis.* By Richard Chenevix, Eſq.

THESE analyſes were partly undertaken to diſcover what degree of confidence could be placed in the cryſtallographic arrangement of minerals; to the merits of which they bear ample teſtimony.

M. Prouſt has ſhewn, that the real oxide of copper is of a brown colour, which colour is retained in the combinations into which it enters; the blue or green colour, formerly attributed to the oxide itſelf, being due to its combination with water, in which ſtate it is moſt frequently found in cupreous ſalts: the ſame combination with water appears in the arſeniates. Mr. C. by a ſeries of well-conducted experiments, points out the contents of the ſeveral ſpecies deſcribed by the Count de Bournon.

In addition to the analyſis, the ſubjoined remarks on the humid aſſay of minerals, are of importance. In the uſual mode of precipitating the nitrous ſolution of copper ores, by carbonate of pot-aſh, a triple ſalt is formed, viz. carbonate of pot-aſh, holding more or leſs hydrate of copper: hence this method is inaccurate. When metals are precipitated by each other, ſeveral phenomena occur, which at preſent appear paradoxical. Mr. C. contents himſelf with pointing them out; but without attempting to reconcile the apparent contradictions, which, if the antiphlogiſtic theory be admitted as true, they involve. In Dr. Wollaſton's paper (N° XXII.) obſervations will be found that promiſe, in ſome meaſure, to clear up theſe difficulties. As it is not eaſy in practice to ſeparate the ſulphur from ores, by dilute nitric acid, Mr. C. propoſes to acidify the ſulphur by ſtrong nitric acid; then, on adding nitrate of barytes, the ſulphate of barytes will fall down. He found 14.4 (or 14.6) of ſulphur, produced 100 of ſulphate of barytes; but, by combining the ſtatements of M. Lavoiſier and M. Fourcroy, this quantity of the ſalt ſhould contain 23.43 of ſulphur. We have not the leaſt heſitation in preferring the eſtimation of Mr. C. and have no doubt that Lavoiſier was miſtaken reſpecting the contents of ſulphuric acid. It is alſo advantageous to acidify the metallic arſenic in ores, by nitric acid; and to precipitate by nitrate of lead: 22 of arſenic yields 100 of precipitate.

Muriatic acid, boiled upon more iron than it could diſſolve, produced a colourleſs ſolution, from which alkalies threw down a white

a white precipitate, which quickly changed to green by contact of the air. Hence Mr. C. aſſumes the exiſtence of a white oxide of iron; and that the order of oxidation in that metal is white, green, black, red.

The red octaedral copper ore, although long known, had never been accurately examined. On inveſtigation, it appears to be a new oxide of copper, at the *minimum* of oxidation, containing only 11,5 of oxygen in 100 of the oxide: the only oxide of copper hitherto known contains 20. When artificially produced by the humid way, the new oxide is of an orange colour.

We perfectly agree with the author reſpecting the injuſtice of preferring the diſcovery of one of the ſimple ſubſtances uſed by nature for the compoſition of bodies, to the far more uſeful purſuit of the ſeveral combinations formed from different proportions of the ſame principles.

XII. *A hiſtorical and anatomical Deſcription of a doubtful Amphibious Animal of Germany, called, by Laurenti, Proteus Anguinus.* By Charles Schreibers, M. D. of Vienna.

THIS animal has a conſiderable reſemblance to the *Siren Lacertina* of Linné; from which it differs chiefly by having four feet inſtead of two, and by its eyes being ſcarcely diſcoverable. It is found, but very ſeldom, in a ſmall lake in Carniolia, and always ſubſequent to certain riſings of the water, which are ſuppoſed to originate from the diſcharge of ſome ſubterraneous caverns into the lake. Having gills and lungs alſo, it has, like the Siren, been conſidered by ſome as the intermediate ſtate of an unknown lizard; but Dr. S. is of opinion that it is a perfect animal; ſince, notwithſtanding the moſt careful reſearches for many years, no animal has hitherto been detected, of which it can poſſibly be the larva. A plate of its external figure, and another of its viſcera, are given.

XIII. *Obſervations tending to inveſtigate the Nature of the Sun, in order to find the Cauſes, or Symptoms, of its variable Emiſſion of Light and Heat: with Remarks on the Uſe that may poſſibly be drawn from Solar Obſervations.* By William Herſchel, LL.D.

DR. Herſchel is of opinion, that, as the emiſſion of light and heat from the ſun is variable, and has conſiderable influence on the ſeaſons, it is our duty to ſtudy the operations which are carried on upon the ſolar ſurface. He brings forward a number of obſervations from his journals, reſpecting what have hitherto been

been called the *maculæ* and *faculæ* of the ſun. From theſe obſervations he deduces the following inferences, which are entitled to notice:

He imagines the ſun to be "a magnificent inhabitable globe," with a tranſparent atmoſphere, ſimilar to our own, and, like it, ſubject to winds. This atmoſphere has, in its ſuperior regions, two diſtinct claſſes of clouds. The lowermoſt, which however are at the diſtance of ſeveral hundred miles from the ſurface of the ſun, are ſimilar to thoſe of our planet: the uppermoſt are a kind of luminous decompoſition, or meteor reſembling the *aurora borealis*, but, on account of the great denſity of the ſolar atmoſphere, much more permanent. The inferior clouds ſo entirely cover the ſun's ſurface that it is probable ſcarcely any but tranſmitted light arrives at the ſurface. The gaſes, from the decompoſition of which the luminous clouds ariſe, in forcing, or attempting to force, their way through the inferior clouds, and the reflexion from the latter, produce the appearances which Dr. H. diſtinguiſhes by the names of openings, ſhallows, ridges, nodules, corrugations, indentations, and pores. In the former of which the ſolid body of the ſun being ſeen, and not being lucid, is miſtaken for mere black ſpots, or their nuclei.

Dr. H. in proſecuting the inquiry concerning the influence of the ſolar phenomena on the ſeaſons, compares them with the average price of wheat. This price is, however, influenced by ſo many cauſes, independent of the ſeaſons, that we can by no means conſider this part of the paper as the moſt valuable.

XIV. *Obſervations on the Structure, and Mode of Growth, of the Grinding Teeth of the Wild Boar, and Animal Incognitum.* By Everard Home, Eſq.

THE particular mode of dentition, by ſucceſſional grinders with increaſed ſurfaces, which had hitherto been obſerved only in the *Sus Ethiopicus*, and the elephant, is here extended by Mr. H. to the wild boar, the animal incognitum, and even to the human ſpecies, particularly the negro. He conjectures alſo, that this increaſe of the grinders, and elongation of the jaw, were ſtill more remarkable in the early races of mankind.

XV. *Account of ſome Experiments on the Aſcent of the Sap in Trees.* By Thomas Andrew Knight, Eſq.

THIS natural operation not having been ſatisfactorily explained, Mr. Knight has inſtituted a ſeries of well-contrived experiments to acquire a further knowledge of the vegetable economy. From theſe he is led to imagine that the ſap, which forms the wood, deſcends from the leaves through the bark.

On

On tracing the tubes which conveyed a coloured infuſion into the leaves, he found that they are diſtinct from the common veſſels of the alburnum, and ſurround the medulla in bundles, commencing a few inches below the leaf to which they belong. As theſe tubes conſtitute a centre in the ſhoot, round which the future alburnum is formed, he propoſes to call them the central veſſels: they have the ſpiral tubes for appendages. The returning veſſels appear to be of two ſorts; one forming a new layer of alburnum, the other the new internal bark. He found that branches, from which ſome of the leaves were removed, were perfectly well fed below the uppermoſt leaf, but failed immediately above it. Mr. K. ſuppoſes, that the medulla ſerves only as a reſervoir to ſupply the extraordinary perſpiration cauſed by the rays of the ſun. He makes ſeveral obſervations reſpecting the ſtructure of the fruit, and the motion of the fluids within it. He is of opinion, that the immediate agent which produces the aſcent of the ſap is the true or ſilver grain of the wood. The laminæ which compoſe this grain are extremely irritable, even after the tree is cut down, producing the phenomena of warping, and the ſpontaneous ſplitting of wood. They are placed between the veſſels of the alburnum, and preſs on them; they are therefore in a ſituation to propel the ſap to the extremities of the branches.

That vegetables poſſeſs "a vehicle of irritation, and an intrinſic power of moving," is, according to Mr. K., evident from the efforts that a vine-leaf will make to turn its upper ſurface to the light, and from ſeveral other circumſtances. The heart, or coloured wood, ſeems to be ſimilar to the bones of animals in its office, and is only found in the trunk and large branches; but, if the roots are laid bare, their alburnum is converted into coloured wood, which does not appear to have any fluids moving through it, unleſs in young trees. The commencement of the coloured wood, and the termination of the alburnum, are often found in the middle of an annual layer.

From Mr. K's experiments on the *deſcent* of the ſap in trees, (of which we gave ſome account in a former number) it appears that the two ſurfaces of the leaf have diſtinct offices, as he found that the under ſurface of a vine-leaf emitted a conſiderable quantity of moiſture, but not the upper ſurface, which ſurface ſeems either to abſorb light, or, at leaſt, to operate by the influence of that agent.

Even when branches were inverted he found, that the bark and wood were generated at the lower lip of the wounds, which in fact were uppermoſt, on account of the inverted poſition of the branches. The gravitation of the ſap

ſap appears therefore to be the cauſe of this increaſe; and hence it is that perpendicular ſhoots grow with much greater vigour than others. When the motion of young apple-trees was confined to a certain direction, Mr. K. found that the diameter of their ſtems was more increaſed in the direction of the motion, than in the other. This obſervation, joined with that of the ſmall quantity of alburnum depoſited when the leaves are ſhaded, ſerves to explain the cauſes of the very different growth of inſulated trees in expoſed ſituations, and of thoſe which grow in crowded foreſts. The alburnum appears to be depoſited on the external ſides of the central veſſels, and on the medulla.

Mr. K. is decidedly againſt the opinion, that the ſilver grain is derived from the medulla. The medullary proceſſes, as the ſilver grain has been called, take their origin from the bark, and are formed in lines converging to the medulla, but have no connection with it. The alburnum extends from the extremities of the roots to the points of the annual ſhoots, and the ſap is impelled along its common tubes; as the alburnum ceaſes to exiſt at the baſe of the buds, and in the ſucculent part of the young ſhoot, there the action of the central veſſels and ſpiral tubes commence. The ſap, thus conveyed to the leaves, and expoſed to the air and light, is brought back again, by the returning veſſels, to the bark, and adds new matter to every part of the tree. It is probable, although the ſap acquires in the leaf the power of generating wood, that it alſo undergoes ſome changes in the bark, poſſibly by diſcharging ſome of its component parts through the pores of the bark.

From an experiment on the potatoe, Mr. K. is of opinion, that the buds produced in tuberous rooted plants beneath the ground, are alſo formed of matter which has deſcended from the leaves through the bark; this ſubject he means to diſcuſs more at length in a future paper.

XVI. *Additional Obſervations, tending to inveſtigate the Symptoms of the variable Emiſſion of the Light and Heat of the Sun; with Trials to ſet aſide darkening Glaſſes, by tranſmitting the ſolar Rays through Liquids; and a few Remarks to remove Objections that might be made againſt ſome of the Arguments contained in the former Paper.* By William Herſchel, LL.D.

DR. HERSCHEL in ſome meaſure apologizes for having ſuppoſed that a connection exiſts between the ſpots in the ſun and the price of wheat. In lieu of ſmoked glaſſes, he tried the tranſmiſſion

miſſion of the rays through various liquids, incloſed in a trough with parallel glaſs ſides. Of thoſe he tried, he ſeems to prefer ink diluted with water, and filtered through paper, which gave a ſnow-white image of the ſun, perfectly diſtinct. The ſun appeared blue, when viewed through a ſolution of green vitriol, to which ſo much tincture of galls had been added as was ſufficient to ſtop the light: on the contrary, it appeared red, and by no means ſo diſtinct, when viewed through the tincture of galls darkened with the ſolution of green vitriol.

XVII. *On an improved Reflecting Circle.* By Joſeph de Mendoza Rios, Eſq.

THIS is an ingenious attempt to combine the improvements of Profeſſor Mayer, and of the Chevalier de Borda, with ſome others which are peculiar to the author. A plan, ſection, and perſpective view of the inſtrument are given.

XVIII. *Obſervations and Experiments upon Dr. James's Powder; with a Method of preparing, in the humid Way, a ſimilar Subſtance.* By Richard Chenevix, Eſq.

THE proceſs propoſed by Mr. C. is, to diſſolve equal quantities of the precipitate formed by water in butter of antimony, and of phoſphate of lime, in the ſmalleſt poſſible quantity of muriatic acid; and to pour this ſolution, gradually, into water impregnated with ammonia: a copious precipitation of a white powder takes place. Two parts of the oxide of antimony, and one of the phoſphate, gave a precipitate whoſe medicinal powers were ſtronger.

Although we have no doubt of the value of this preparation as an antimonial medicine, yet, reſpecting the identity of this precipitate, with the *pulvis antimonialis*, or with Dr. James's powder, we find ſome cauſe for heſitation. The preſent preparation is totally ſoluble in acids; the *pulvis antimonialis* leaves an inſoluble reſiduum of about 44 parts in 100, and Dr. James's powder leaves a reſiduum of 28 parts in the ſame quantity.

XIX. *Caſe of a young Gentleman who recovered his Sight when Seven Years of Age, after having been deprived of it by Cataracts before he was a Year old; with Remarks.* By Mr. James Ware, Surgeon.

IT appears from this paper, that children born with cataracts are nevertheleſs able to diſtinguiſh colours, and are ſenſible

ſible of the approach of an object towards their eye; hence, when the cataracts are removed, they are immediately capable of forming ſome judgment of the diſtance and ſtate of the ſurrounding objects. The cataracts of children being in general fluid, or at leaſt ſoft, do not admit of extraction; but, if the capſule is punctured with a couching needle, the opake matter is frequently abſorbed. As this operation admits the uſe of a *ſpeculum oculi*, it may be performed at an early age; and, ſhould it prove unſucceſsful, it will not preclude the performance of extraction at a ſubſequent period.

XX. *An Account of ſome Galvanic Combinations, formed by the Arrangement of ſingle metallic Plates and Fluids, analogous to the new Galvanic Apparatus of Mr. Volta.* By Mr. Humphry Davy, *Lecturer of Chemiſtry in the Royal Inſtitution.*

THE Galvanic piles heretofore uſed, conſiſted of a ſtratum of fluid, and of two ſolids, either both metals, or alternately metal and charcoal; but Mr. D. diſcovered, that the Galvanic phenomena take place when plates formed of a ſingle metal are connected together by two different fluids, ſo that only one of their ſurfaces may either be oxidated, or may act upon ſulphuretted hydrogen, or upon ſulphurets diſſolved in water; the other ſurface being in contact with a fluid which has no chemical action on the metal: and this production of the Galvanic influence was more abundant when the two oppoſite ſurfaces of the plates were undergoing different chemical changes. By cementing plates of metal and of glaſs (or other non-conducting ſubſtance) alternately, in a non-conducting trough, filling the intermediate ſpaces with the different fluids, in pairs, and connecting theſe fluids by ſlips of moiſtened cloth carried over the plates of glaſs, an apparatus is formed, the effects of which are more permanent than thoſe of a pile.

XXI. *A Continuation of the Experiments and Obſervations on the Light which is ſpontaneouſly emitted from various Bodies; with ſome Experiments and Obſervations on ſolar Light, when imbibed by Canton's Phoſphorus.* By Nathaniel Hulme, M. D.

THESE intereſting experiments are continued from the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1800. Thoſe in the preſent volume relate chiefly to the effects of various aëriform fluids on ſpontaneous light, which preſent ſome ſingular phenomena, and will claim the attention of the experimental philoſopher.

An improvement in the process for Canton's phosphorus is mentioned in this paper, by omitting the pulverization of the shells, and using precipitated sulphur.

XXII. *Experiments on the chemical Production and Agency of Electricity.* By William Hyde Wollaston, M. D.

DR. WOLLASTON, by reducing the Galvanic process of excitation to its most simple state, endeavours to show that the oxydation of the metal is the primary cause of the electrical phenomena.

The experiments described in this paper appear to us to be very important, as they tend to throw some light upon those anomalies in the affinities of oxygen with hydrogen, and with the metals, to which Mr. Chenevix alludes in his analysis of the arseniates of copper, &c.

XXIII. *Further Observations on the Effects which take Place from the Destruction of the Membrana Tympani of the Ear; with an Account of an Operation for the Removal of a particular Species of Deafness.* By Mr. Astley Cooper.

MR. COOPER here adduces additional observations to shew, that even the entire destruction of the membrana tympani is not followed by a total loss of hearing. And, in those kinds of deafness which arise from a closure of the Eustachian tube, he recommends the puncturing of the membrana tympani as a safe and successful operation.

The usual meteorological journal is given at the end of the first part, and the list of presents at the end of the second.

The medal on Sir Godfrey Copley's donation was adjudged, for 1800, to Edward Howard, Esq. for his paper on a new fulminating mercury.

ART. LXIX. *The most remarkable Year in the Life of Augustus Von Kotzebue, containing an Account of his Exile.* Written by himself. Translated from the German by the Rev. Benjamin Benford, English Lecturer to the Queen of Prussia. 3 vols. pp. 776. Price 12s. Phillips; 1802.

THE last ten years have exhibited such a series of extraordinary events, that the great, the stupendous, and what, had not living evidence attested it, would have been considered as the incredible, are become familiar to the mind:—the artificial combinations

combinations of genius are tame and trivial, compared with the authenticated facts ſucceſſively preſented to the public. Fable yields to hiſtory; and the moſt extravagant dreams of romance are now identified with the trite realities of experience.

In this era of revolutions, few individuals have known trials more ſevere, or viciſſitudes more remarkable, than the Preſident Kotzebue; and it is a curious coincidence, that mere literary fame ſhould have expoſed this popular dramatiſt to dangers ſimilar to thoſe which the love of liberty had drawn on ſome of his contemporaries. The ever-memorable journey to Ruſſia which forms the ſubject of the preſent work, originated in his wife's ſolicitude to reviſit her native country, and to rejoin the circle of friends from whom ſhe had been ſeparated during the laſt three years, which ſhe had ſpent with her huſband at Weimar. Having obtained leave of abſence from the Emperor of Germany, to whom the author was dramatic cenſor, and procured a paſſport from the Ruſſian court, in which every particular relative to his route was minutely ſpecified, Kotzebue, with his wife and three children, left Weimar on the 10th of April 1800, and, till he had arrived at Berlin, appears to have entertained no doubts with regard to the ſafety of his enterprize. During his ſtay in that city, ſome gloomy apprehenſions damped his own ardour, but his wife's impatience triumphed over his reluctance; and rejecting the prudent precautions ſuggeſted by his friends as puſillanimous and unjuſt, he perſiſted (not without ſecret preſages of evil) in his reſolution of advancing to the Ruſſian frontiers.

"We came in ſight of the lines, and were now on the territory of Ruſſia: we could, however, have returned;—no ſoldier ſtopped us;—no river, no bridge, not the ſlighteſt barrier ſeparated us from the Pruſſian dominions. Silent, and with a heavy heart, I caſt my eyes to the left. All the admonitions I had received now aſſailed me—I could ſcarcely breathe: my wife, too, had her alarms, which ſhe has ſince owned. She looked at me without ſaying a word. Still we had time to retreat:—the wheel of fortune was turned, and we were about to undergo our deſtiny. 'Halt!' cried a coſſack, armed with a long pike. We were at the foot of a bridge that led over a ſmall brook: the guard-houſe lay on the left. The officer made his appearance: 'Your paſſport, ſir.'—Here it is.—The officer opened it, and examined the ſignature. 'You are come from Berlin?'—Yes.—'Very well: pray go on, ſir.' He made a ſign;—the barrier opened,—the carriage rolled with a heavy ſound over the bridge:—the barrier ſhut behind us, and I heaved a deep ſigh. Here we are, cried I to my wife, affecting to be gay. Heaven knows, however, that all my uneaſineſs was confined to the ſingle point

point of my return:—far was I from thinking that my perſonal ſafety was at all in danger. We arrived in a few minutes at Wolangen, a ſmall town where the cuſtom-houſe is eſtabliſhed. At the head of this department was M. Sellin, a polite and humane man, formerly a lieutenant-colonel of a regiment quartered at Narva. He had reſided at no great diſtance from my wife's patrimonial eſtate: when I left Ruſſia we had embraced on this ſame ſpot, and my wife and I were happy to find we were on the point of meeting him again. I alighted from my carriage, and Sellin appeared on the flight of ſteps before the door. I approached and embraced him, but he returned my ſalute with an air of gravity. I aſked him if he did not recollect me? He made no reply, and ſtrove afterwards to appear cordial. My wife now alighted, and the evident embarraſſment of Sellin made her ſhudder: he received her, however, with politeneſs, and handed her into the houſe. Weyrauch the comedian, who had accompanied us from Memel, was likewiſe admitted without difficulty. My wife aſſumed the eaſy gaiety of behaviour which takes place between old acquaintance. Sellin anſwered in an awkward manner; and at length turning towards me, ſaid, 'Where is your paſſport?'—In the hands of the Coſſack officer. He was ſilent, and the concern he felt was viſible in his countenance. The paſſport ſoon appeared. Sellin peruſed it, and then aſked if I was the Preſident Kotzebue? The queſtion on his part was ſingular:—Doubtleſs, I replied, I am that perſon. In that caſe, continued he, (but he inſtantly ſtopped ſhort, and I obſerved that his countenance was pale, and his lip quivering,) then, addreſſing himſelf to my wife, 'Be not alarmed, madam; but I have orders to arreſt your huſband.' The unhappy woman gave a loud ſhriek:—her knees tottered, ſhe flew to me, threw herſelf about my neck, and began to load herſelf with the moſt bitter reproaches. My children could not underſtand what was going forward, and I myſelf was petrified. But the ſtate of my wife, who was fallen into a ſwoon, reſtored my preſence of mind: I took her into my arms, and placed her on a chair. I then ſtrove all in my power to conſole her, and ſhe recovered. Then, attending to what related to myſelf, I turned inſtantly towards Sellin. Tell me, ſaid I, what your orders imply; and, above all, keep nothing from me. 'I am commanded to ſeize your papers, and to ſend them, together with yourſelf, to Mittau.'—What will happen to me there?—'Your papers will be examined, and the governor will receive further inſtructions upon the buſineſs.'—Nothing more?—'Nothing.'—And my family may accompany me?—'Certainly.' Well then, ſaid I, to my dear and excellent wife, we may make ourſelves perfectly eaſy: we are going to Mittau;—ſuch was our original intention. My papers are in order, and can be liable to no ſuſpicion. This arreſt is nothing more than mere precaution;—a meaſure of prudence, which may be overlooked in a monarch during the revolutions which at this time convulſe the world."

With reflections ſuch as theſe, the unfortunate Kotzebue conſoled his afflicted wife; and ſo far was he from conceiving the nature of the evil which impended, that, though many opportunities offered for eſcape during his progreſs from Wolangen to Mittau, he proceeded with the confidence of innocence, in the full perſuaſion that no ſerious impediment could ariſe to the proſecution of his journey. On reaching Mittau he was firſt informed that he was to be ſeparated from his family, and conducted under guard to Peterſburgh. Painful as the ſeparation muſt have been, Kotzebue ſupported it with fortitude and equanimity; and, by a ſort of infatuation, left his wife at Mittau without any ſuſpicion of his real deſtination. But the ſanguine poet was not long to remain under this deluſion: after paſſing Riga, he obſerved that the route was changed: the dreadful truth ruſhed to his mind, and he learnt, with unutterable horror, that he was going under the eſcort of an aulic counſellor and a ſenate courier to the remote and barbarous diſtrict of Tobolſk!!! Rouſed by his ſituation, he inſtantly reſolved to make one deſperate effort for his eſcape; and ſo powerfully did the alternation of hope and fear inſpire him with courage, that, in defiance of dangers the moſt eminent, and difficulties ſcarcely ſurmountable, he actually effected this object; at an inn within a ſhort diſtance of Stockmonſhof he withdrew from his conductors, waded through a ſwampy meadow, concealed himſelf in a deep wood that ſkirted the borders of the Duna, and finally, in a ſtate of exhauſtion that threatened delirium, gained the caſtle of the Chamberlain Bayer, with whom he had been intimate, and from whoſe humanity he hoped to receive protection: but here too Kotzebue ſoon diſcovered that he had committed an error in calculation. His guards were in purſuit of their fugitive:—the chamberlain was too anxious for his own ſafety to harbour in his manſion a man whoſe name had been offenſive to the Emperor Paul; and all that Kotzebue achieved by his perilous enterprize was, the aſſurance that his humble memorial ſhould be preſented to the Czar, and nothing omitted which might intereſt that monarch in his favour. With the feeble hope that clemency might prevail over caprice, Kotzebue left the caſtle, rejoined his eſcort at Riga, and quietly purſued his melancholy courſe to Siberia. The following affecting picture of a wretched maniac, dragging out exiſtence in exile, will probably awaken ſome commiſeration and ſome indignant feeling in our readers:

"We ſtopped to change horſes at a village, and as I was ſitting at the door of a cottage breaking ſome bread into a bowl of milk, an

an old man of ſixty, whoſe hair and beard were white as ſnow, threw himſelf on the ground, and inquired with extreme eagerneſs if we had brought him any letters from Revel. I fixed my eyes ſtedfaſtly upon him: I doubted whether I had rightly underſtood him; upon which, a woman who was ſtanding by whiſpered me, 'This man has loſt his ſenſes: he ſtarts from his bed every time he hears of the arrival of a ſtranger, and always aſks the ſame queſtion. Give me a piece of paper,' continued ſhe, 'and I will pacify him, otherwiſe you will have much trouble with him; for he will perſiſt in ſtaying here, and tire you with his lamentations.' She then pretended to read a letter to him, beginning with theſe words, 'My dear huſband, I am in perfect health, and likewiſe are all our children. Make yourſelf eaſy:—we ſhall ſoon be with you.' The old man appeared to liſten with extreme delight; he ſmiled and ſtroked his beard; then, taking the paper in his hand, he preſſed it to his boſom. He now related very rationally, that he had formerly been a ſoldier; had ſerved on board the Ruſſian fleet at Cronſtadt, and at other places. He added, that he was an invalid, that he had juſt left his wife, and that ſhe was with her children at Revel. The woman told us, that he had left them thirty years. The poor man vehemently contradicted her, and then ſeated himſelf on the end of a bench, where my two gentlemen were amuſing themſelves in their old way, and of whom he appeared to take no notice. After this he uttered ſome words which I could not well hear; then cried out aloud, 'My deareſt, where art thou at this moment? art thou at Revel, at Riga, or at Peterſburgh?"

On the tenth of May Kotzebue arrived at Tobolſk; which he deſcribes as a large town, not ill built, and, ſtrange as it may ſeem, not without its theatre, its aſſembly, and other places of elegant amuſement. By a ſtrange fatality, he was deſtined to hear of the ſucceſsful repreſentation of his own pieces in Siberia, at a time when every work tainted with his name was proſcribed in the civilized part of the Ruſſian empire. Kotzebue was even importuned by an actreſs for inſtruction reſpecting the coſtume proper to be adopted in his Virgin of the Sun; and urged by a friend to write tragedies, when he was himſelf enduring ſorrows more intenſe than any which he had attempted to pourtray. The author here takes occaſion to correct many erroneous, though commonly received opinions, reſpecting the exiles in Siberia, whom he divides into four claſſes: firſt, malefactors, who have undergone the knout, and whoſe noſtrils having been ſlit, are condemned to work in the mines of Nertſchink: ſecondly, thoſe juridically condemned, who are degraded to the rank of ſlaves or bondmen, and employed as cultivators of the ſoil. The third claſs compriſes thoſe ſimply baniſhed, who are permitted to retain their ordinary revenues, or, if deſtitute of pecuniary revenues, are entitled to a proviſion from government. The

fourth clafs includes prifoners of ftate, who are baniſhed during the ſovereign's pleaſure; and theſe are ſometimes confined in fortreſſes, and kept in chains. From the governor, M. Kuſchelef, Kotzebue experienced all that humanity, kindneſs, and delicacy could ſuggeſt. He was allowed many privileges, and was reſtored to a comparatively liberal and even elegant ſociety. But the calamities of our ill-fated poet were not to terminate at Tobolſk: in a few weeks he had to proceed to Kurgan (the name of which ſignifies a grave), a miſerable ſort of hamlet, compoſed of ſordid buildings, and inhabited by a ruſtic race, far remote from refinement, or even civilization. Yet, even here, Kotzebue found beings capable of diſintereſtedneſs and generoſity, proud to exerciſe the ſacred rites of hoſpitality, and alive to all the ſocial feelings. Deſpairing of his reſtoration to Europe, Kotzebue began to conceive a plan for re-uniting himſelf with his family in this immenſe deſert, and even to cheriſh viſions of domeſtic happineſs in Siberia. But all theſe chimerical ſpeculations of comparative good, which nothing but actual miſery could have ſeparated from poſitive evil, were ſuddenly abandoned, when he received a ſummons from the benevolent Kuſchelef to return to Tobolſk, from whence, by virtue of an imperial mandate, he was conducted to Peterſburgh. We leave the reader to conceive the feelings with which Kotzebue approached this city: the joy of emancipation was repreſſed by gloomy apprehenſions for his wife's ſafety, and by his total ignorance reſpecting the fate of his family. At this moment of uncertainty,—of ſuſpenſe,—of terror, Kotzebue learns that his wife is in Peterſburgh: his own pen ſhall deſcribe the ſubſequent meeting:—"I ſtood trembling at the window which was juſt over the gateway:—I ſaw my wife enter: I ſtaggered towards the door:—ſhe ruſhed in, and fainted in my arms." It is with reluctance we take leave of theſe volumes, in which the attractions of fiction are combined with the charms of truth. Curioſity is always awake, the imagination conſtantly in action, and the heart ever alive to emotion. Conſiderable literary ability appears in this performance. The character of the aulic counſellor and the ſenate courier are admirable delineations; and the rapid ſeries of incidents which occurred in this remarkable year are interwoven in a ſimple narrative, ſo exquiſitely intereſting as never to ſuffer the reader's attention to wander for a ſingle moment: in one word, we ſcruple not to confeſs, that the peruſal of this book of biography has given us impreſſions of the talents and genius of the author, which we had failed to receive from his numerous dramas; his more oſtenta-

tious

tious and *too* celebrated volumes: we even venture to predict, that this ſimple *tale of truth* will be read and admired, when his ſplendid *tales of fiction* are neglected or forgotten.

ART. LXX. *Theological Inſtitutes: in Three Parts. By George Hill, D.D. F.R.S.E. Principal of St. Mary's College, &c. &c.* 8vo. pp. 444. price 7*s.* 6*d.* Longman and Rees. 1803.

UNDER the title of THEOLOGICAL INSTITUTES, Dr. Hill offers a ſpecimen of that ſort of inſtruction which, for fifteen years, he has been in the habit of addreſſing to the ſtudents of the college over which he has preſided. He has divided his work into three parts: the firſt is a mere outline of a courſe of lectures on the ſcience of theology; the ſecond is a delineation of the conſtitution of the church of Scotland; and the third is intitled, "Counſels reſpecting the public and private duties of the paſtoral office."

To thoſe young men who have attended Dr. Hill's courſe of theological lectures, the outline here given may be ſerviceable in recalling to their minds the ſtudies of former days. In the hands of an able lecturer it may be deemed ſufficient for every purpoſe; but, as a ſyſtem, it is evidently defective. The references are too few; and for a young man, ſuppoſed to be unacquainted with the ſubjects, and who reads for information, they are much too vague and indeterminate: thus Clarke, and Law, and Jortin, and many others, whoſe works are voluminous, and who treat on many ſubjects, are referred to without any notice of the particular volume to which the lecturer alludes. In other caſes this objection does not occur, and to a perſon in the habit of conſtantly reviewing his ſubject it would not have been difficult to have rendered the courſe more appropriate to the wants of young perſons, by following the plan of Doddridge, whoſe references are carried not only to the particular volume of the author, but to the chapter, ſection, or even page, of that volume.

The ſecond part of this work contains, in a ſhort compaſs, a diſtinct view of the eccleſiaſtical eſtabliſhment of the church of Scotland. The author does not expect that all his reaſonings and opinions on this ſubject will coincide with the ſentiments of every perſon who examines the ſubject. His object was rather to give an accurate detail of facts than to attempt a vindication of the ſyſtem, which will be unneceſſary for the perſons immediately concerned: and with regard to thoſe who in this part of the iſland are accuſtomed to a very

different eſtabliſhment, Dr. Hill does not ſeem deſirous of making converts.

The moſt important part of the volume, at leaſt that which may be moſt generally uſeful, is the profeſſor's advice with reſpect to the paſtoral office. The ſubjects here treated of are all of high value; and though in many things we ſhould, perhaps, differ from our author, were we minutely to analyze his directions, yet there is ſo much excellent advice on the ſubject of preaching, and on the manners and habits that muſt become familiar to a man if he would be a uſeful and reſpectable miniſter of the Goſpel, that we feel no heſitation in recommending them to the attention of young preachers. As a ſpecimen of Dr. Hill's ſtyle, we ſhall quote his concluding advice on the choice of the ſubjects of preaching.

"Whatever be the nature of the text which you chooſe, you ſhould begin your preparation by digeſting thoroughly in your mind the ſubject of your diſcourſe. We apply the name of looſe preaching to that in which no ſubject is completely handled, no plan ſteadily purſued, but the object is perpetually changed, as it ſuits the convenience of the ſpeaker. Defects in the execution are readily excuſed by the beſt judges; but we do not eaſily forgive a man for preſuming to addreſs a large aſſembly upon a ſolemn occaſion, without having clear ideas of the ſubject to which he is to direct their attention; and we require, as the firſt qualification in a ſermon, that the preacher, by profound meditation, and the exerciſe of a ſound judgment, has ſeparated the points of which he profeſſes to ſpeak, from other points with which they are apt to be confounded; that having preſented to us ſome ſubject poſſeſſing the gravity, the importance, and the edification, ſuited to a ſermon, he never loſes ſight of it in the progreſs of his diſcourſe, but, according to its nature, explain, amplify, or apply it, and leave us in the end ſatisfied that he has done what he propoſed."

ART. LXXI. *Caſtle Rackrent: an Hibernian Tale. Taken from Facts, and from the Manners of the Iriſh Squires, before the Year* 1782. *By Maria Edgworth.* pp. 214. price 4*s.* Johnſon. 1801.

IN this ingenious Hibernian tale there is much *local* intereſt, which is unavoidably loſt to the mere Engliſh reader: ſuch, however, is the humorous delineation of character in the family portraits exhibited in Caſtle Rackrent, that though incompetent to decide on the accuracy of the *likeneſs*, we heſitate not to pronounce on the merits of the execution which diſplays the hand of a maſter. As the title-page profeſſes to preſent only a ſketch of Hibernian ſquires, ſuch as they exiſted

iſted prior to the year 1782, we will not here inquire whether the manners of the Sir Kits and Sir Condys be really obſolete, or whether the race of the Sir Murtaghs be actually extinct. We will only obſerve, that the old ſteward, Thady Quirk, the ſuppoſed biographer, in a plain unvarniſhed tale, expoſes the ſyſtem of peculation eſtabliſhed by the agency of middlemen; and lays open the frauds and abuſes, the vexations and reſtraints, which are ſtill believed to depreſs the ſpirit and paralyze the energies of the Iriſh tenantry: the memoirs of Thady are related in a quaint and colloquial ſtyle, the characteriſtic humour of which is perceptible even to the *Engliſh reader:* he enters on his narrative on a "Monday morning," commencing with Sir Patrick, and terminating with Sir Condy. Having premiſed that though he is father to an attorney, a high gentleman with £1500 a year, he bears no other name than that of *Thady, Honeſt Thady,* he proceeds to eſtabliſh the antiquity of the *Rackrent family.*

"The family of the Rackrents is, I am proud to ſay, one of the moſt ancient in the kingdom. Every body knows this is not the whole family name, which was O'Shaughlin, related to the kings of Ireland—but that was before my time. My grandfather was driver to the great Sir Patrick O'Shaughlin; and I heard him, when I was a boy, telling how the Caſtle Rackrent eſtate came to Sir Patrick. Sir Tallyhoo Rackrent was couſin-german to him, and had a fine eſtate of his own, only never a gate upon it; it being his maxim, that a car was the beſt gate.—Poor gentleman! he loſt a fine hunter, and his life at laſt by it, all in one day's hunt. But I ought to bleſs that day, for the eſtate came ſtraight into the family, upon one condition, which Sir Patrick O'Shaughlin at the time took ſadly to heart, they ſay, but thought better of it afterwards, ſeeing how large a ſtake depended upon it—that he ſhould, by act of parliament, take and bear the ſurname and arms of Rackrent.

Now it was that the world was to ſee what was in Sir Patrick.—On coming into the eſtate, he gave the fineſt entertainment ever was heard of in the country: not a man could ſtand after ſupper but Sir Patrick himſelf, who could ſit out the beſt man in Ireland, let alone the three kingdoms itſelf. He had his houſe, from one year's end to another, as full of company as ever it could hold, and fuller; for rather than be left out of the parties at Caſtle Rackrent, many gentlemen, and thoſe men of the firſt conſequence and landed eſtates in the country, ſuch as the O'Neills of Ballynagrotty, and the Caſtlemoneygawls of Mount Juliets Town, and O'Shannons of New Town Tullyhog, made it their choice, often and often, when there was no moon to be had for love nor money, in long winter nights, to ſleep in the chicken-houſe, which Sir Patrick had fitted up for the purpoſe of accommodating his friends and the public in general who honoured him with their company unexpectedly at Caſtle Rackrent; and this went on, I can't tell you how long. The

whole country rang with his praiſes. Long life to him!—I'm ſure I love to look upon his picture, now oppoſite to me; though I never ſaw him, he muſt have been a portly gentleman—his neck ſomething ſhort, and remarkable for the largeſt pimple on his noſe, which, by his particular deſire, is ſtill extant in his picture, ſaid to be a ſtriking likeneſs, though taken when young. He is ſaid alſo to be the inventor of raſpberry whiſkey, which is very likely, as nobody has ever appeared to diſpute it with him, and as there ſtill exiſts a broken punch-bowl at Caſtle Rackrent, in the garret, with an inſcription to that effect—a great curioſity. A few days before his death he was very merry; it being his honour's birth-day, he called my great grandfather in, God bleſs him! to drink the company's health, and filled a bumper himſelf, but could not carry it to his head, on account of the great ſhake in his hand; on this he caſt his joke, ſaying, "What would my poor father ſay to me, if he was to pop out of the grave and ſee me now?—I remember, when I was a little boy, the firſt bumper of claret he gave me after dinner, how he praiſed me for carrying it ſo ſteady to my mouth—here's my thanks to him—a bumper toaſt!"

To the laviſh Sir Patrick ſucceeds the litigious and ſordid Sir Murtagh, who forms a ſpirited contraſt to his predeceſſor. The next perſonage introduced is Sir Kit, a young daſhing officer; who, having brought an architect for the houſe, and an improver for the grounds, looked at their plans and elevations, and fixed a day for ſettling with his tenants, goes off in a whirlwind for town, and by the next poſt demands of the new agent a ſupply of 500 *l.* Sir Kit leaves every thing to this agent, who is repreſented as "one of your middlemen, who grind the face of the poor, and can never bear to ſee a man with a hat on his head." "He ferretted the tenants out of "their lives:—drafts upon drafts from Sir Kit; but I laid it "all to the fault of the agent; for, ſaid I, what can Sir Kit "do with ſo much caſh, and he a ſingle man; but ſtill it "went."—Honeſt Thady now takes occaſion to mention, with complacency, his ſon Jaſon, as a "cute lad, who copied rent accounts for the agent, and was ſoon rewarded with a good farm." Sir Kit, who is a deſperate gambler, perſiſts in demands for money, till money can be no longer raiſed. The agency is then transferred to the wily Jaſon, who takes good care to ſecure his own emolument, under the pretext of promoting the honour of the family. As a laſt reſource, Sir Kit marries an heireſs, whoſe reception at Caſtle Rackrent is thus deſcribed by Thady:

"We had waited and waited all day long till eleven o'clock at night, and I was thinking of ſending the boy to lock the gates, and giving them up for that night, when there came the carriages thundering up to the great hall door. I got the firſt ſight of the bride; for

for when the carriage door opened, juſt as ſhe had her foot on the ſteps, I held the flam full in her face to light her, at which ſhe ſhut her eyes, but I had a full view of the reſt of her; and greatly ſhocked I was, for by that light ſhe was little better than a blackamoor, and ſeemed crippled, but that was only ſitting ſo long in the chariot.—"You're kindly welcome to Caſtle Rackrent, my lady," ſays I, (recollecting who ſhe was)—"Did your honour hear of the bonfires?"—His honour ſpoke never a word, nor ſo much as handed her up the ſteps; he looked to me no more like himſelf than nothing at all; I knew I took him for the ſkeleton of his honour—I was not ſure what to ſay next to one or t'other; but ſeeing ſhe was a ſtranger in a foreign country, I thought it but right to ſpeak cheerful to her, ſo I went back again to the bonfires:—"My lady (ſays I, as ſhe croſſed the hall) there would have been fifty times as many but for fear of the horſes and frightening your ladyſhip—Jaſon and I forbid them, pleaſe your honour." With that ſhe looked at me a little bewildered:—"Will I have a fire lighted in the ſtate-room to-night?" was the next queſtion I put to her—but never a word ſhe anſwered; ſo I concluded ſhe could not ſpeak a word of Engliſh, and was from foreign parts.—The ſhort and the long of it was, I couldn't tell what to make of her, ſo I left her to herſelf, and went ſtraight down to the ſervants' hall, to learn ſomething for certain about her. Sir Kit's own man was tired, but the groom ſet him a talking at laſt, and we had it all out before ever I cloſed my eyes that night. The bride might well be a great fortune; ſhe was a Jewiſh, by all accounts, who are famous for their great riches. I had never ſeen any of that tribe or nation before, and could only gather, that ſhe ſpoke a ſtrange kind of Engliſh of her own; that ſhe could not abide pork or ſauſages; and went neither to church nor maſs.—Mercy upon his honour's poor ſoul, thought I, what will become of him and his, and all of us, with this heretic blackamoor at the head of the Caſtle Rackrent eſtate? I never ſlept a wink all night for thinking of it; but, before the ſervants, I put my pipe in my mouth, and kept my mind to myſelf; for I had a great regard for the family: and, after this, when ſtrange gentlemen's ſervants came to the houſe, and would begin to talk about the bride, I took care to put the beſt foot foremoſt, and paſſed her for a nabob, in the kitchen, which accounted for her dark complexion, and every thing."

The ſubſequent brutality of Sir Kit to his bride is founded on the well known hiſtory of Lady Cathcart. At length, Sir Kit being killed in a duel, the eſtate reverts to Sir Condy, who, when a boy, had been an indolent, good-humoured, dunce; and, as a man, becomes an improvident, ſuperſtitious, droniſh ſpendthrift. The eſtate, already encumbered with mortgages, is ſoon enthralled with bonds, deeds, and creditors. Sir Condy, whoſe ſole reſource is in the artful Jaſon, ſigns paper after paper, till the Caſtle Rackrent itſelf is transferred from the thoughtleſs ſpendthrift to his rapacious agent. The memoirs

memoirs of Caſtle Rackrent preſent an epitome of two orders of people, of whom a large proportion of every community is compoſed—the *riſing* and *declining* family. It affords a lively picture of the improvidence and extravagance by which property is alienated from the ancient owners. It expoſes the craft and chicanery which convert the *agent* to the *principal*, and the oblique means by which the unprincipled mercenary mines his paſſage to diſtinction, and finally quits the ſubordinate for the ſuperior ſtation. From Caſtle Rackrent the gay may derive amuſement, whilſt the politician extracts reflection. It is obvious that the reſpectable body of yeomanry, which in England fills up the interval between the ſplendid manor-houſe and the thatched hovel; that intermediate body, equally important to the upper and the lower orders of ſociety; equally competent to repel oppreſſion from the one, and to repreſs inſolence in the other; that body, in England ſo valuable and important in its political and civil relations, has in Ireland no exiſtence. On this truth we forbear to comment; —we leave our readers to ſmile or ſigh, to laugh or declaim, according to their reſpective temperaments, over the memoirs of *honeſt* Thady.

ART. LXXII. *Elements of Galvaniſm, in Theory and Practice; with a comprehenſive View of its Hiſtory, from the firſt Experiments of Galvani to the preſent Time. Containing alſo practical Directions for conſtructing the Galvanic Apparatus, and plain ſyſtematic Inſtructions for performing all the various Experiments. Illuſtrated with a great Number of Copper-Plates.* By C. H. Wilkinſon. 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 1000 nearly. Price 1*l.* 1*s.* Murray. 1804.

THE diſcoveries in the ſcience of Galvaniſm have, during the laſt few years, excited the attention of almoſt every perſon engaged in the purſuit of natural and experimental philoſophy. It is now not fourteen years ſince Galvani, the celebrated Italian from whom the ſcience derives its name, was accidentally led to a ſeries of experiments, which have been ſucceeded by others, than which, perhaps, none more brilliant and aſtoniſhing were ever exhibited to the world.—Two inſtances, indeed, are upon record, in which the principles of animal electricity, now denominated Galvaniſm, were clearly elicited. So long ago as the year 1767 an experiment is mentioned by Sultzer, in a work intitled "The "general Theory of Pleaſures," which is certainly referrible to Galvanic principles. The other fact, recorded in the "Journal

" Journal Encylopedique de Bologne," 1786, was noticed by M. Cotugno, a medical ſtudent, who, while he was diſſecting a mouſe, touched with his knife the intercoſtal nerve, and was ſurpriſed and alarmed by an evident electrical ſhock. Theſe gentlemen do not appear to have purſued the ſubject, nor can the ſcience be ſaid to have originated from either of theſe experiments, though they are now conſidered as among the earlieſt and moſt ſimple that are ſhewn by thoſe who exhibit a courſe of lectures on the ſubject. In the year 1790 Galvani, of Bologna, while making experiments with a common electrical machine, was inſenſibly led to the inveſtigation of a ſcience which will immortalize his name. In the following ſpring he publiſhed an account of his diſcoveries, and from this period we may date the foundation of Galvaniſm. During the laſt twelve years it has excited an almoſt univerſal attention; the progreſs it has made has been exceedingly rapid; ſtill it may be ſaid to be in its infancy. New and highly intereſting experiments are daily invented, and there is every reaſon to expect that in chemiſtry, at leaſt, Galvaniſm will prove an uſeful and very powerful agent.

Whether the preſent be a proper period to arrange the ſeveral facts and circumſtances connected with this ſcience into a regular hiſtory, may be doubted. The work before us is not, however, ſo much a hiſtory of the ſcience, as it is a general, and perhaps too minute an account of what has been done by the ſeveral gentlemen who have devoted their time and their talents in the inveſtigation. Such a work will undoubtedly have its uſes, and will be highly eſtimated as containing a large collection of materials for ſome future hiſtorian, who, when the ſtudy is more advanced, ſhall ſet about arranging them in proper order.

We cannot better deſcribe the contents of Mr. Wilkinſon's work than by tranſcribing his own account of it:

" Soon after the important experiments of Galvani were announced, they were repeated and diverſified by the moſt eminent phyſiologiſts in every part of Europe. Their opinions having been diffuſed through different publications, the ſelection and arrangement of ſuch of them as have been worthy of the reader's attention have been attempted in this preſent work. The valuable eſſays which are diffuſed through the French, Italian, German, and Britiſh Journals, have been attentively examined, as well as the ingenious productions of Sue, Reinhold, and Humboldt. Theſe materials I have not arranged ſyſtematically, but have principally been governed by the era of the original diſcovery. I have divided the work into two epochs, which appeared the moſt intereſting; the firſt conſiſting of the various diſcoveries, from the period of Galvani to that

that of the Voltaic pile; when the ſecond epoch commences, and is carried down to the preſent time.

"The hiſtorical details conſtitute the Firſt Volume, and part of the Second. The remaining portion I have devoted to the development of that particular theory which I have for ſome time entertained, and have adhered to the arrangement, which I purpoſely made for the lectures I have given upon this ſubject."

The diſcoveries made by Galvani were principally with dead frogs, the muſcles of which he was able to bring into action by means of electricity; and even without any apparent electricity the ſame motions may be produced in the dead animal, or in detached limbs of it, by making a communication between the nerves and the muſcles with ſubſtances that are *conductors* of electricity. If the circuit of communication conſiſt of non-conductors, no motion is excited. Having made many experiments on this part of the ſubject, he endeavoured to aſcertain whether the electricity of lightning would be productive of the ſame effects in the motion of the muſcles. The reſult of theſe experiments was preciſely the ſame as in the application of the former; and he found the contractions augmented in proportion to the intenſity of the flaſhes of lightning, and to the proximity of the electrified cloud. Hence he began to ſuſpect that there was an electricity peculiar to animals, and he conjectured that the nervous fluid paſſes from the nerves to the muſcles by a law ſimilar to that which is evident in the experiment of the Leyden phial. He employed a repreſſing arc, and a conducting one; the latter always produced contractions, while it was impoſſible to excite any by means of the other. The contractions were more conſiderable when two arcs were employed inſtead of one, if they were ſo diſpoſed as to touch each by one of its extremities, the one the nerves, the other the muſcles of the animal, while the two remaining extremities were brought together and connected at pleaſure.

Mr. W. having deſcribed the fundamental experiments invented by Galvani, he goes on to ſtate the theory which that philoſopher adopted, and in what way he applied his hypotheſis and his facts to medical ſcience; our readers will be glad to read the following extract, which will at once exhibit the ardent mind of the Italian, and be a ſpecimen of Mr. Wilkinſon's ſtyle in general; we ſay in general, becauſe, independently of the quotations, of which there are many, and theſe very extended ones, we find frequently a difference in the ſtyle of thoſe parts, which we are naturally led to ſuppoſe are Mr. Wilkinſon's.

"The

" The mechaniſm of the various movements is explained by Galvani in the following manner: The electrical fluid is drawn and attracted from the interior of the muſcles into the nerves, from whence it afterwards paſſes to the external ſurface of the muſcles; inſomuch that each diſcharge of this deſcription of electrical phial is followed by a muſcular contraction, which is the effect of the ſtimulus produced by the electricity. He was ſtrengthened in this conjecture by the perfect analogy he fancied he could perceive between the phenomena of the Leyden phial in electricity, and the muſcular contractions. However this parallel may have been ſince weakened by a few iſolated facts, or rather by the concluſions which have been drawn from them, it is certain that there is a ſtriking ſimilitude in the principal points.

" It would have been equally fortunate for Galvani, and for the medicinal ſcience, if, with the powerful reſources of his inventive genius, he had ſucceeded in the principal extenſions he gave to his firſt hypotheſes, in the inveſtigation of the cauſes of diſeaſes, and had realized his particular ideas relative to the production of rheumatic affections, of the nervous ſciatica, and of convulſions and tetanus. Theſe ideas, and their application to medicine, will be developed in the ſequel of this work. In conformity to the theory he had eſtabliſhed, he endeavoured to explain the proximate cauſe of paralyſis, apoplexy, and epilepſy; and was of opinion that the good effects reſulting from the adminiſtration of various remedies in the above diſeaſes, and, among them, the application of artificial electricity, were, in certain caſes, to be aſcribed to the mode of action of theſe remedies on the animal fluid, whatever might be the change brought about in the ſtate of the latter. It therefore appeared to him that the phyſician ought to be governed by this intention of cure, in the treatment of his patient; and, in the caſe of convulſive diſeaſes, he conſidered that it was of the higheſt importance to inquire which of the two ſtates of electricity, the poſitive or the negative, it would be moſt expedient to employ.

" After having deſcribed the new mode of applying the latter of theſe ſtates of electricity, which he found of great utility in rheumatic and other analogous affections, Galvani proceeded to expatiate on the advantages which might reſult, under ſimilar circumſtances, from the electricity of the atmoſphere in ſtormy weather, provided the utmoſt caution and prudence ſhould be obſerved in arming with conductors the affected part. It was in this way that he explained the ſudden and extraordinary recovery of the uſe of the limbs in caſes of paralyſis, in conſequence of the lightning having burſt at a very inconſiderable diſtance from the ſpot where the perſons labouring under the paralytic affection reſided. Are not, however, theſe ſpontaneous cures, ſuppoſing them to have happened, rather to be aſcribed to the emotion of terror which a loud clap of thunder excited in the ſuffering individual? To ſuch a cauſe may be aſcribed the caſe related in the Phyſiology of Dumas, of the cure of a man, who, at the time his houſe was on fire, recovered the uſe of his feet by the conſternation into which he was thrown."

It

It is not our intention to enter into the controverſies which were carried on between Galvani and Volta; it is ſufficient to ſay that they are properly noticed in the work before us; and Galvani's hypotheſis is well and fully ſtated. In this and other parts of the volumes Mr. W. does juſtice to the ſeveral contending parties that come under his view, and he ſtates his own opinions with the confidence becoming a man who has conſidered the ſcience with attention, and who has perhaps made as many, or even more experiments in the inveſtigation than almoſt any other perſon.

We cannot follow him in his account of the experiments made by Volta, Valli, Fontana, Fowler, and many others who have equally diſtinguiſhed themſelves in this branch of ſcience; nor can we analyze his abridgments of Reinhold's Review, or of Humboldt's well known, and highly celebrated work, intitled, "Experiments on Galvaniſm, and on the Irritation of the muſcular and nervous Fibres." The laſt, indeed, will be read with much intereſt by thoſe who have attended to, or who are entering upon the ſcience. The ſame may be ſaid generally of the other parts of the work. It would, however, have been deſirable that Mr. W. ſhould have exerciſed his judgment in the art of ſelection, by which we ſhould have had a much leſs expenſive book, and we doubt not that to beginners, for whom it is intended, it would have been more intelligible by being brought with care and attention into a ſmaller compaſs. The ſame remark is clearly applicable to the Thirteenth Chapter, which is intended to ſhow in what way, and in what caſes, Galvaniſm may be applied to medicine. Facts on this part were ſurely more deſirable than to ſpin out a long chapter by detailing the ſeveral theories which led to the attempts in the healing art, and the controverſies to which theſe attempts have given riſe. Had our author, who has had experience himſelf, collected into a ſhort compaſs the caſes in which Galvaniſm had been ſucceſsfully applied by the writers to whom he refers, and alſo others in which it had been uſeleſs or even miſchievous, he would, we apprehend, have done more ſervice towards alleviating human miſery than can be expected from the ſort of diſſertation with which he has preſented us. But it ſeems to have been his ambition to record whatever has been attempted, without regard to the failure or ſucceſs of the experiments.

The greater part of the Second Volume is devoted to what Mr. W. denominates the elements of the ſcience, and it appears that in the outline he coincides in opinion with Volta, though in many inſtances he differs from him. He attempts to prove "that the principles of Galvaniſm and Electricity are iden-

identically the ſame. That the former is the evolution of electricity from conducting bodies, forming one of their conſtituent parts, and diſengaged by a chemical proceſs; while the latter is the ſame principle, rendered apparent to our ſenſes by the temporary changes of non-conducting bodies to a conducting ſtate." Hence this Fourth and Laſt Part conſtitutes the Elements of Electricity and Galvaniſm.

If the reader expect to find in theſe Elements merely a collection of didactic rules, by which the unexperienced will be put into the method of ſtudying the ſcience, he will be agreeably diſappointed: he will find interwoven with the firſt principles and fundamental experiments of Galvaniſm a conſiderable body of uſeful information, related in a pleaſing manner, without oſtentation, and yet free from any thing low and mean. The following extract will ſpeak our ſentiments and feelings, and will juſtify the applauſe which we are deſirous of beſtowing upon that part of the work which is more immediately Mr. Wilkinſon's own:

"Upon the principles of ſimple Galvanic combinations, many curious phenomena are explicable. Formerly, in applying copper ſheets to the bottom of ſhips, it being the uſage to employ iron bolts, it was obſerved that the copper ſoon became looſened in the part where the two metals were in contact. This arrangement conſtituted a ſimple Galvanic combination of two diſſimilar metals, and an interpoſed fluid. In this caſe the interpoſed fluid was the ſea water, or a ſolution of the muriate of ſoda, and the metallic ſubſtances, the iron and copper. In a ſimilar arrangement, the iron, the moſt oxydable metal, in becoming oxydated in the part more immediately in contact with the copper, is ſoon deſtroyed, and detached from the latter ſubſtance.

"In 1795 Creve firſt ſhewed that in every ſimple Galvanic combination water is decompoſed. The oxygen, in theſe combinations, enters into union with the metal; and the hydrogen is evolved.

"Profeſſor Robiſon has remarked, that the drinking of porter out of a pewter pot produces a more briſk ſenſation than when it is taken out of a glaſs veſſel; and this he aſcribes to a Galvanic effect. In this inſtance there is a combination of one metal and of two diſſimilar fluids. In the act of drinking, one ſide of the pewter pot is expoſed to the ſaliva and the humidity of the mouth; while the other metallic ſide is in contact with the porter. In completing the circuit, in the act of drinking, a briſk and lively ſenſation ariſes, which imparts an agreeable reliſh to the porter.

"This ingenious profeſſor has carried the refinement of taſte ſo far, as to fancy that ſnuff, taken out of a metallic ſnuff-box, excites a more agreeable ſenſation than when taken out of a box of tortoiſe ſhell, or papier maché.

"The diſcoloration of a ſilver ſpoon, in the act of eating eggs, is likewiſe a curious Galvanic operation.

"Mr.

"Mr. Carliſle, by a very ingenious analyſis, has proved the exiſtence of ſulphur, both in the yelk and in the albumen of an egg. A tea-ſpoon left immerſed in either of theſe ſubſtances, undergoes no diſcoloration; but the above remarkable phenomenon takes place in the act of eating the egg; the extremity of the ſpoon which is moſt in the mouth being always found to be the moſt diſcoloured.

"In this caſe the Galvanic combination conſiſts of the ſulphurated ſolution, the ſilver tea-ſpoon, and the ſaliva. In every Galvanic operation Creve has ſhewn that water is decompoſed. The naſcent hydrogen, readily uniting with the ſulphur, forms ſulphurated hydrogen gas, which produces the diſcoloration. It is this gas, evolved from our coals in the act of combuſtion, which occaſions a ſimilar tarniſh to the ſilver employed for domeſtic purpoſes.

"Volta, to whom we are indebted for the diſcovery of the Galvanic combination of a ſingle metal and two different fluids, obſerves, that if a tin baſin be filled with ſoap ſuds, with lime water, or with a ſtrong ley, and if it be held by both the hands, moiſtened in pure water, upon applying the tip of the tongue to the fluid an acid taſte will be perceived. In proportion as this acid ſenſation gradually dies away, the taſte becomes pungent and alkaline."

In the concluding chapter our author gives an account of Medical Galvaniſm, as it has fallen under his own obſervation, with ſuch directions, illuſtrated with plates, as may be underſtood and applied by others who are diſpoſed to make ſimilar attempts.

In PARALYTIC affections Galvaniſm has often proved of very conſiderable advantage: though Mr. W. ſays he has never ſucceeded perfectly in reſtoring the patient to his original ſenſibility, he has in many inſtances conſiderably aſſiſted the powers of motion. In connection with this we cannot help noticing an intereſting account of the pious efforts of a young man to reſtore to the uſe of his limbs a paralytic father. Vol. I. 444.

In caſes of DEAFNESS conſiderable relief has been afforded by means of Galvaniſm; but Mr. W. has never ſucceeded in being ſerviceable to thoſe who have complaints in their eyes.

"In involuntary actions of the muſcles," ſays Mr. W. "I know of no remedy ſo efficacious as Galvaniſm. In a contracted ſtate of the fingers or hands, however violently the latter may be clenched, on the application of this principle for the ſpace of a few minutes, it rarely fails to induce a relaxation. In caſes of cramp, if of long continuance, and even of tetanus, or locked jaw, it has afforded relief in a ſhort ſpace of time. In contractions of the joints, and in all caſes of rigidity, it will be found a very advantageous ſtimulus, which will greatly contribute to the reſtoration of motion.

"In

"In the stiffness of the joints, occasioned by the gout, it has come under my observation that the stimulus of Galvanism, conjointly with the flesh-brush, has been attended by the happiest effects. It seems to give such a tone to the blood-vessels as to render the circulation more vigorous. In this state of the disease such an effect is very desirable.

"Perhaps in no case are the advantages of Galvanism more sensibly experienced than in indolent tumours, or scrophulous swellings, which have long remained stationary. By the influence of this principle tumours of this kind have in a few days been brought either into a state of suppuration or resolution. Many swellings are of such a nature that their removal by either of these means is desirable. I have frequently applied the Galvanic principle with the utmost success in inguinal tumours, which had resisted every other curative intention. The obtuse aching sensation, generally attendant on these indolent tumours, is very speedily removed. In scrophulous affections of the neck it has been found very beneficial."

With regard to the influence of Galvanism in cases of mental derangement, Mr. W. mentions its good effects in two instances by Aldini: he gives Mr. Haslam's theory on the subject, but does not appear to have had any experience himself. But in the nervous head-achs to which females are subject, accompanied by a violent oppressive sensation over the eyes, with an almost entire inability of motion, he says Galvanism is of the greatest advantage.

Our author concludes with considering the effects of Galvanism in cases of suspended animation, and gives some directions for treatment in attempting to bring back the vital spark.

"When life is suspended, and the principle of irritability not destroyed, the stimulus of Galvanism, if prudently employed, may rouse the dormant energies of vitality, and restore the system to its naturally active state. Fortunately, in most cases of asphyxia, the principle of irritability is not in any degree lessened. An animal, whether drowned in water or in hydrogen gas, exhibits nearly the same symptoms. When exposed to either of these media, the pulse soon becomes weak and frequent; the animal feels at the breast an anxiety, which it struggles to relieve; and these difficulties increase until it falls down without sense or motion."

And again—

"In cases of suspended animation, whether from drowning, hanging, or exposure to noxious gases, the body should be divested of its clothing, and placed in a warm bed, nearly approaching to the natural temperature. If it can be procured, air with an increased proportion of oxygen, should be introduced into the lungs; and at the same instant very gentle Galvanic shocks should be sent through the body, in such a direction as to influence the heart.—

By combining this principle with the other uſual means, the moſt advantageous effects may be expected. In the caſe of Forſter, five or ſix hours after his execution, ſuch actions were produced by the Galvanic apparatus as to lead the practitioners who were preſent to ſuppoſe that at this late period even a recovery might, by perſeverance, have enſued. The general idea that in caſes of hanging the vertebræ are diſlocated, is erroneous. Very few inſtances have occurred of any organic derangement; inſomuch that whether the death be occaſioned by hanging or drowning, the cauſe is the ſame.

"I have conſtantly entertained a perſuaſion that complete death takes place from the arteries being emptied of their contents. In the laſt convulſive agonies thoſe arterial terminations which do not admit the paſſage of red blood having loſt their reſiſting power, ſuffer the whole of the blood to be emptied into the venous ſyſtem.—In this way the energy of every part of the body is deſtroyed.

"Having thus conſidered the principle of Galvaniſm in its operations upon animate and inanimate matter, I preſume that this ſubject will be deemed worthy of our moſt ſerious attention. It enables us to refer to the ſame cauſe many beautiful phenomena in Nature, and is an additional argument in proof of the ſimplicity by which all her proceſſes are effected. The diſcovery of this principle has contributed to remove, in a certain degree, the veil which has hitherto prevented us from comprehending a variety of changes in the material world.

"On a ſuppoſition that Galvaniſm is the intermediate principle between matter and ſpirit, I cannot, I muſt confeſs, conceive the mode in which the agency is effected. To comprehend the eſſence of our own animation requires the powers of a principle ſuperior to that which we poſſeſs. Infinite as I regard the difference between common matter and our vital principle, ſtill we may ſuppoſe another infinitude between our ſpring of life and that Source which comprehends all."

ART. LXXIII. *An Account of the late Improvements in Galvaniſm, with a Series of curious and intereſting Experiments performed before the Commiſſioners of the French National Inſtitute, and repeated lately in the Anatomical Theatres of London. By John Aldini, Profeſſor of Experimental Philoſophy in the Univerſity of Bologna. To which is added, an Appendix, containing the Author's Experiments on the Body of a Malefactor executed at Newgate; &c. &c.: illuſtrated with Engravings.* 4to. pp. 221. price £. 1. 1s. Cuthell and Martin. 1803.

THE name of Aldini, like that of Galvani, his uncle, is well known by all, in every country, who have paid any attention to the newly diſcovered ſcience of Galvaniſm: and had the volume before us been a tranſlation from a publiſhed work in any language, the tranſlator, or editor, or both, (for

in the preſent inſtance they appear to be different perſons,) might, undoubtedly, have uſed their diſcretion with regard to giving their names to the public: but as the tranſlation was made from a manuſcript, it would have been deſirable that it ſhould have been authenticated and ſanctioned by the ſignature of the editor.

In the preface we are told, that

"When Profeſſor Aldini left this country, the MS. written in French, together with two printed Latin diſſertations, was put into the editor's hands, in order that they might be prepared for the preſs. A tranſlation of theſe forms the principal part of the work: and an appendix has been added, containing the author's experiments on the body of a malefactor (Forſter) executed at Newgate; experiments of a ſimilar kind on the bodies of three criminals decapitated at Bologna, and an experiment lately made at Calais, which ſeems to ſhow that Galvaniſm is ſuſceptible of being conveyed to a very conſiderable diſtance through the water of the ſea."

The firſt part of the work is divided into ſeventeen propoſitions, the truth of which the author has proved, or illuſtrated, by many experiments. The object of theſe propoſitions is to exhibit the action of Galvaniſm independently of metals, and to explain ſome of its general properties. In the ſtrict ſenſe of the term, experimental philoſophy does not admit of mathematical demonſtration; of courſe, for this we cannot look; yet we are not diſpoſed to cavil with Aldini for putting a principal part of the volume in this form; we diſcern its uſes; nor do we believe that it can tend to miſlead the tyro in ſcience. He will, when he has conſidered well the enunciation, and repeated the experiments, or reflected upon the author's mode of reaſoning, be at little loſs to judge for himſelf whether the truth of the propoſition is fairly made out, or in what part it is defective. The reader ſhall hear the Profeſſor ſpeak for himſelf; who, though nephew to the celebrated founder of the ſcience, diſplays that degree of juſtice and candour, in ſpeaking of Volta, the antagoniſt of Galvani, as is worthy of a liberal and enlightened philoſopher who is ardently purſuing the truth.

"A juſt tribute of applauſe has been beſtowed on the celebrated Profeſſor Volta for his late diſcovery; and I have no deſire to deprive him of any part of that honour to which he is ſo juſtly entitled; but I am far from entertaining an idea that we ought, on this account, to neglect the firſt labours of Galvani. Though theſe two philoſophers purſued different routes, they concurred to throw conſiderable light on the ſame points of ſcience; and the queſtion now is, to determine which of them deduced the moſt juſt conſequences

from the facts he obſerved; and then, to aſcertain whether the facts eſtabliſhed by Galvani lead to the theory of Volta, or whether thoſe diſcovered by Volta are connected with the theory of Galvani. For my part, I am of opinion, that theſe two theories may ſerve in an eminent degree to illuſtrate each other.

"Laſt year Profeſſor Volta announced to the public the action of the metallic pile. I here propoſe to exhibit, according to the principles of Profeſſor Galvani, the action of the animal pile.

"Such is the plan I have conceived in order to reconcile the ſyſtems of theſe two illuſtrious philoſophers: it forms the object of the preſent work, which is divided into three parts. In the firſt, I ſhall exhibit the action of Galvaniſm independently of metals, and explain ſome of its general properties. The ſecond will contain experiments on the power of Galvaniſm to excite the vital forces. In the third I ſhall propoſe ſome uſeful applications of it to medicine, and explain the principles on which the new medical adminiſtration of Galvaniſm is founded. To render the work as methodical as poſſible, I have endeavoured to arrange the experiments in ſuch a manner, that they may ſerve as proofs to a ſeries of general propoſitions, which, it is hoped, will be of uſe to phyſiology and to the doctrine of the animal economy."

In ſeveral of the propoſitions, the author has conſidered Galvaniſm in connection with common electricity, and has ſhown how nearly the experiments of the one aſſimilate to thoſe of the other; and that in many caſes the very ſame circumſtances which prevent an accumulation of the electric fluid, are equally fatal to the diſplay of the effects of Galvaniſm: the following propoſition will exhibit M. Aldini's mode of reaſoning in a very ſatisfactory way.

PROPOSITION IX.

"Flame prevents the action of the Leyden flaſk, as well as that of the pile, and alſo muſcular contractions."

EXPERIMENT I.

"I placed a lighted taper on an inſulating ſtool, and having made the wire, proceeding from the interior coating of a charged Leyden flaſk, to paſs through the flame, I found that, without forming an arc, it loſt a portion of its electricity. If the experiment be repeated in ſuch a manner that the flame makes a part of the arc between the two coatings, the flaſk is entirely diſcharged, without the arms of the perſon who forms part of the arc experiencing the leaſt ſhock.

EXPERIMENT II.

"I adapted to the ſummit of the pile a circular braſs veſſel, containing ſpirit of wine. By theſe means the pile was made to terminate in a ſtrong flame, to which I applied a metallic conductor, while with the other hand I touched the bottom of the pile. The Galvanic fluid ſtill withſtood my efforts; and the caſe was the ſame when

when I ſubſtituted for the ſpirit of wine the flame of a common candle. It is proper here to remark, that the flame did not leſſen the action of the Galvaniſm when the conductor, inſtead of being applied to the flame, was applied to the plate at the ſummit of the pile.

EXPERIMENT III.

"I have already proved, by a ſeries of experiments, addreſſed to C. Lacepede, that flame, made to form part of the arc applied to the nerves and muſcles of a frog, prevents muſcular contractions. I repeated the experiment, with the ſame reſult, on ſeveral warm-blooded animals. I obſerved that the flame interpoſed in the arc, which touched the back and belly of the torpedo, prevented the electric ſhocks."

Although it will not be expected that more than one propoſition ſhould be given as a ſpecimen of the Profeſſor's manner of teaching the ſcience, yet we will do him and our readers the juſtice to notice the general corollaries which he deduces from the inveſtigation; which are—1. That there is a real attraction between certain parts of animals; and this tends to confirm the idea of a ſort of atmoſphere peculiar to parts of animals, as has been ſuggeſted by Humboldt. 2. The action of Galvaniſm on the aëriform fluids may ſerve to explain its influence over the animal fluids by the oxidation of the humours. 3. Fiſhes, and ſeveral amphibious animals, which live under water, ſometimes approach the ſurface, on certain changes in the atmoſphere, which are communicated to the water. 4. Water ſaturated with ſalts, particularly muriate of ſoda, increaſes the effects of Galvaniſm; fiſhes poſſeſs a high degree of vitality; hence the wiſdom ſhown in abundantly ſaturating the ſea with muriate of ſoda. 5. As Galvaniſm poſſeſſes great activity in chemical decompoſitions, it cannot remain in a ſtate of inaction, but muſt produce great changes in the animal fluids and functions. 6. It has been proved, that as there is a metallic arc and a metallic pile in the mineral kingdom, there is alſo an animal arc and an animal circle in the animal kingdom; which may one day throw great light in the progreſs of medicine, and be productive of benefit to the human race.

In ſpeaking of the ſecond part, where the influence which Galvaniſm has on the vital powers is diſcuſſed, the author ſays, "I have examined the whole range of nature, and the grand family of animals has afforded me the means of making obſervations, highly intereſting to phyſiology, on the whole economy of the vital powers." His experiments, which are fifty-ſeven in number, are the application of Galvaniſm to various quadrupeds, birds, and other warm-blooded animals;

and to human bodies after death: and from these it is inferred—1. That the muscles are affected by the action of the pile more powerfully when they are laid bare, and when the arc is made to penetrate to a considerable depth in their substance. 2. These convulsions are increased in proportion to the number of the points of contact between the arc and the muscle. 3. In many cases, muscular contractions are obtained by forming an arc from one muscle to another. 4. Muscular contractions are almost always speedily obtained by the pile. 5. The heart can with difficulty be made to feel the influence of the Galvanic action, while the other muscles always retain, a long time after death, that vital force which it has never been found possible to excite but by the impulse of Galvanism. 6. Galvanism excites contractions without the aid of other stimulants, which alter the texture of the muscular fibre, and destroy its continuity. 7. As the Galvanic apparatus may be applied to the nerves of the animal machine, it may afford to the anatomist an experimental myology, by means of which he can render sensible to the eye the fixed and moveable points of the muscles, and the real extent of their action. 8. In pursuing the experiments made on the bodies of persons who die a natural death, we may hereafter become better acquainted with the character of the vital powers, and the difference of their duration, according to the diversity of sex, age, temperament, and disease, and even according to the diversity of climate, and to the nature of the atmosphere.

The third part of this volume, which is devoted to the consideration of the power of Galvanism, as applied to medicine, will be perused with great interest by those who are sanguine in their expectations, that it will be found of high importance in the healing art. Aldini's hopes are expressed with modesty, and with that candour which is displayed in every other part of the volume.

"If the doctrine of Galvanism have thrown considerable light on various parts of philosophy and chemistry, it gives us reason to hope that it may also be of benefit to medicine. The labours, indeed, of Galvani, whose most ardent desire was, that his discovery might be rendered useful to mankind, were at length directed to this object; and his wishes now begin to be realized: but I must request the reader not to be too sanguine in his expectations, or to imagine that I here mean to entertain him with a long series of wonderful or extraordinary cures performed by means of Galvanism. I have no intention to decorate the discovery of my late uncle with false glory. Though I possess neither the same depth of knowledge, nor the same superiority of talents, I have always endeavoured to imitate his moderation and prudence in the application of his theory. I am

I am fully convinced that much ſtill remains to be done, in order to diſcover the beſt methods of employing this new agent; and that the facts reſpecting it, though numerous, have not been reduced to principles ſufficiently certain and ſatisfactory. There are, nevertheleſs, ſome reſults and obſervations exceedingly curious, which, if confirmed by new experiments and reſearches, may enable us to obtain convincing proofs of its utility. New facts, however ſurpriſing, are not to be deſpiſed merely on account of their being different from any before obſerved. Thoſe who reject them, as ſome have done, ought firſt to ſhew that they are inconſiſtent with the principles of ſound philoſophy. Guided by theſe reflections, and deſirous of contributing, as far as poſſible, towards the illuſtration of a new and very obſcure ſubject, I ſhall lay before the reader the reſult of my reſearches in the following articles."

In theſe articles the author conceives it is fully proved, that Galvaniſm, on many occaſions, exerciſes an influence different from that of common electricity, and that it may be adminiſtered in various caſes with eaſe and ſafety:—that the action of Galvaniſm manifeſts itſelf by a ſenſible attraction between the nervous and muſcular parts:—that the impreſſion made by Galvaniſm on the brain ſeems to explain its power on the organ of hearing:—that it is a powerful aid in caſes of drowning and aſphyxia:—that in caſes of melancholy madneſs, when other remedies fail, Galvaniſm may be employed with the greateſt hopes of ſucceſs, provided the diſeaſe does not proceed from a vitiated conſtitution, or a general derangement in the animal machine:—that the current of the Galvanic fluid produces a great alteration in the animal fluids; ſeparates many of their principles, and produces this effect in a particular manner on the urine.

Such are the deductions which the Profeſſor conceives himſelf juſtified in making from his own practice and experiments, which we have given rather than an extract from any particular caſe; but the application of this principle to the diſeaſes of the teeth, by Mr. Fowler, is ſo very curious, that we cannot deny our readers the ſatisfaction that we ourſelves have experienced from M. Aldini's account of it:

"I muſt ſuggeſt a hint reſpecting the application of Galvaniſm to diſeaſes of the teeth, founded on information communicated to me on this ſubject by Mr. Fowler, an eminent dentiſt of London. When the caries is concealed from the ſight, Mr. Fowler employs the following method to diſcover the affected tooth. He firſt inſulates the patient; and having put into his hand the electric chain, he applies a ſmall piece of wire to the dens ſapientiæ, drawing it gradually over its ſurface: he then applies it to the next tooth, repeating the operation; and proceeds in like manner with the reſt till he comes to the diſeaſed tooth, which diſcovers itſelf by a violent pain, pro-

ducing an involuntary commotion in the body. It is always remarked, that when this tooth is extracted, it exhibits a carious part not before visible. This method, therefore, is of great importance, as it frequently happens in such cases, that the dentist, not being able to distinguish the diseased tooth from the rest, is obliged to draw some that are found before he can discover it."

The Dissertations on Animal Electricity at the close of the work, were read in the institute of Bologna, in the years 1793 and 1794. To these, and to the Appendix, which contains an account of many experiments made on Forster by Aldini, in the presence of several medical gentlemen of the greatest respectability in London; also an account of the experiments made by C. Vassali, Eandi, Giulio, and Rossi, on the bodies of three men executed at Bologna, we must refer the reader, having already extended this article beyond the limits to which we had intended to confine ourselves. After what we have said, and after the extracts that we have given, it would be needless for us to add any panegyric on the whole. We doubt not that it has been of great use already; and we may assert, without danger of contradiction, that it will long be consulted by those who make Galvanism their study and delight.

ART. LXXIV. *An Introduction to Electricity and Galvanism; with Cases, shewing their Effects in the Cure of Diseases: to which is added, a Description of Mr. Cuthbertson's Plate Electrical Machine. By J. C. Carpue, Surgeon.* 8vo. pp. 112, price 4s. Phillips, Russell Street. 1803.

ALTHOUGH we have had many introductions to Electricity, we do not remember to have seen any attempt to teach the first principles of Galvanism upon so familiar a plan as that now before us. Having entered so much at large on the subject in the preceding articles, it would be needless to go over the ground again. As Mr. Carpue intends this little work for the use of those whose avocations will not permit them to read works of more consequence, and as an introduction to more enlarged views of the science, we can recommend it as very adequate to the end proposed. He has selected from the best authors with discrimination and judgment, and he has arranged the several parts of his subject with precision and perspicuity. Mr. C. was present when Aldini made his experiments on the body of Forster, of which he gives the following interesting account:

"Professor

"Profeſſor Aldini was the firſt who tried the effects of the pile on a dead human ſubject. His firſt experiment was on a perſon decapitated at Bologna; the next was on the body of Forſter, who was executed at Newgate for murder in January 1803. The Galvanic ſtimulus produced contractions in the various parts of the body, though it had been expoſed an hour in the temperature of two degrees below the freezing point of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

"The conductors being applied to both ears, which were moiſtened with ſalt and water, a motion of the head was produced.—Conductors applied to the ear and rectum excited very ſtrong contractions. When conductors were applied to the ſciatic nerve, and to the ſpinal marrow, contractions were not produced. Very little action was produced when the conductors were applied from the ſciatic nerve to the peronæal nerve. Contractions were produced ſeven hours after death. The apparatus had now nearly loſt its power of acting, or convulſions might have been produced for a greater length of time.

"It is not certain in Forſter's caſe whether the heart did or did not act. Mr. Hutchins having opened the thorax and pericardium, Mr. Cuthbertſon and myſelf immediately, by the deſire of Sig. Aldini, applied the conductors to the heart, Mr. C. to the right ventricle, and I to the left, I exclaimed, 'the heart acts:' one of the gentlemen preſent thought it did not. I applied the conductor again and again, and certainly action was not produced. Poſſibly what Sig. Aldini and the gentlemen preſent ſaid, is true, that I moved the heart by the conductor, and that it was not the effect of the fluid. I ſhould not have mentioned this trifling circumſtance had it not been aſſerted that the heart is not ſuſceptible of the Galvanic influence. In ſeveral ſubſequent experiments I have obſerved that the hearts of animals contract like the other muſcular parts, when ſubjected to the Galvanic influence. Dr. Pearſon has obſerved this in ſeveral experiments. Meſſrs. Vaſſali and Roſſi prove this fact in the following report: Their experiments were made on a man decapitated. A rod from the pile formed a communication with the ſpinal marrow, intercoſtal nerve, and the par vagum: the different regions of the breaſt were moiſtened with ſome ſolution; a rod from this was connected to the other end of the pile, when ſtrong, tetanic ſhocks were obtained through the body, and ſuch violent palpitations of the heart, that on the hand being applied to the region of the fifth and ſixth ribs, it was ſtrongly ſtruck by them; inſpirations and expirations were produced, accompanied with a hiſſing noiſe. After opening the thorax, the palpitations of the heart continued; when they ceaſed, by eſtabliſhing a communication between the heart and the pile, and from the great intercoſtal nerve and par vagum, they were renewed. They ſay that the heart generally ceaſes to act in about forty minutes after death."

We are ſorry to ſee in an introductory work ſo many defects in ſpelling, which may perhaps be attributed to various cauſes, but

but which in a second edition ſhould be guarded againſt: among others, we will mention the following: *Nolet*, for *Nollet*. *Corneæ*, for *Cornea*. *Welſh*, for *Walſh*. *Sulzer*, for *Sultzer*. *Matus auditorius*, for *Meatus auditorius*.

Art. LXXIV. *Coins of the Seleucidæ, Kings of Syria; from the Eſtabliſhment of their Reign under Seleucus Nicator, to the Determination of it under Antiochus Aſiaticus; with Hiſtorical Memoirs of each Reign. Illuſtrated with Twenty-four Plates of Coins, from the Cabinet of the late Matthew Duane, F. R. and A. S.* Engraved by F. Bartolozzi. 4to. pp. 256. Price 2*l.* 2*s.* Payne, and White, London; 1803.

THE importance of medals to every department of learning is ſo great, and publications to illuſtrate them ſo few, that we hail the appearance of this work as a phenomenon on the literary horizon. To thoſe who have conſidered the information which medals contain, and that they are of all documents the moſt authentic, it muſt appear ſtrange that the ſtudy of them ſhould have ſo little engaged the attention of the learned, in a country where learning ſo generally abounds, and where, with the exception of one department nearly allied to the numiſmatic, that of Inscriptions, ſcarcely any topic of diſcuſſion is neglected. That England has leſs abounded with medalic works than the other countries of Europe, is owing to no want of the means, for our treaſures in this reſpect are moſt ample, but chiefly, it is preſumed, that in our public inſtitutions no proviſion hath been made for the ſtudy. Nor, with whatever ability the *Profeſſor of Hiſtory at Oxford*, from whom the public has every thing to expect, may have entered on his ſubject, we have not heard that the aids to be derived from medals have yet claimed his attention. With him, however, it would be only a collateral topic, whereas the medalic ſcience affords in itſelf an original ſource of inſtruction, and which can never be exhauſted. How much is it, then, to be lamented, that no lectures on the ſubject are publicly given; eſpecially before the Museum of Dr. *Hunter* is conſigned to oblivion. The author of the work before us has done his part to render it uſeful, and thoſe who are intereſted in this branch of learning, though they may not find it to be free from errors, will notwithſtanding receive it as a valuable publication.

The plates which form the baſis of it are *twenty-five* in number; and to ſay that they were drawn and engraved by Bartolozzi,

Bartolozzi, is to ſtate but a ſmall part of their merit. Though ſtimulated by the liberality of Mr. *Duane*, his exertions were made *con amore*; and notwithſtanding there is ſomething of his hand that is peculiar to be diſtinguiſhed, they, on the whole, may be pronounced the beſt work of the kind *.

Mr. Duane, who ſpared neither trouble nor expenſe in collecting a complete ſeries of the Syrian and Macedonian kings, went no further than to engrave them. Thoſe of the latter claſs we expect to ſee illuſtrated by a Gentleman whom every medaliſt in the kingdom will admit to be the beſt qualified for the work; whilſt the plates that compriſed the former are here publiſhed by Mr. Gough, who gives this account of his own publication:

"The editor of this work flatters himſelf he is doing to the literary world at large, and to the lovers of numiſmatic ſcience in particular, an eſſential ſervice, in laying before them a ſet of plates which they have been eagerly expecting near half a century; and which, by a revolution of circumſtances have become his property, though not at an inconſiderable price, yet at a price far below what they muſt have coſt their original proprietor, who ſpent nearly five hundred pounds on them.—

"What reaſons induced Mr. Duane to keep back this treaſure from the public till it was out of his power to give it them, is not for the editor to ſay. Had Mr. Duane lived to execute his own deſign, we cannot doubt he would have performed his part in a manner more worthy of the ſubject.

"Under the preſent circumſtances, all that can be done is, to accompany theſe fine plates with a ſhort view of the reigns of the reſpective princes. Ancient hiſtory furniſhes but ſcanty materials for thoſe who reigned longeſt and figured moſt, and ſcarce any particulars of ſeveral of the reſt; though it ſhould ſeem every reign had once its hiſtorian."

In reſpect to the various catalogues which have been given of the kings denominated in general *Seleucidæ*, Mr. Gough remarks,

"It was obſerved by the judicious Spanheim, that Appian makes the number of Syrian kings ſeventeen, omitting Alexander Balas and his ſon, and Tryphon. Porphyry and Euſebius, with Balas, give ſixteen. Demetrius Nicator is put twice, before and after his captivity; and Syria revolted to the Romans in Philip's time.

* Thoſe who wiſh to be poſſeſſed of more perfect repreſentations may be ſupplied by Mr. Tassie with exquiſite impreſſions from the originals. We mention with pleaſure this very deſerving artiſt, whoſe ambition it is to furniſh, at a cheap rate, caſts from every cabinet to which he can have acceſs.

Petavius

Petavius has twenty or twenty-one, without Balas, his ſon Tryphon, Alexander Zebina, and Tigranes; but with Balas, Zebina, and Tigranes, twenty-four or twenty-five, for want of ſeeing the coins engraved or in cabinets, which ſeem twenty-ſix (except Seleucus V.), from Seleucus I. to Antiochus Aſiaticus. So that an exhibition of theſe coins is not only pleaſing but inſtructive, by ſhewing what credit is due to hiſtorians, and filling up the deficiencies of ſucceeding later writers. Petavius obſerves, it is for the intereſt of ſacred as well as profane hiſtory, that we ſhould have an exact knowledge of the order and ſucceſſion of thoſe kings who, after Alexander the great, reigned in Syria; exhibiting the events of their reigns in chronological order, and their connection with the ſtory of the Maccabees. This laſt advantage is not a little improved by the frequent dates on their coins, which aſcertain the exact ſeries and ſucceſſion, the number of years of their reigns, or the beginning or end of them, which had been left undetermined or imperfect in ancient hiſtorians and annaliſts; and thus the conſtruction of the famous æra of the Seleucidæ may be ſettled. Various circumſtances are recorded on theſe coins; the names of the ſeveral kings, and their diſtinctions from each other: ancient hiſtorians having frequently omitted their ſurnames and titles, which ſerve not a little to illuſtrate their hiſtory: ſome of their actions, ſcarcely known from other means, but from hence more fully cleared up: names and ſituations of celebrated cities of Syria, Phœnicia, and Paleſtine, where they were ſtruck: æræ, religious rites, deities, dignities, privileges, as that of being held *ſacred*, *inviolable*, *independent*, ΙΕΡΑΣ, ΑΣΥΛΟΥ, ΑΥΤΟΝΟΜΟΥ, all which particulars are frequently expreſſed on theſe coins."

That the conſtruction of the famous æra of the Seleucidæ may be ſettled from theſe coins, with Mr. Gough we are ready to admit; but we wiſh exceedingly he had undertaken to furniſh the clue for reconciling the dates of hiſtorians with them; as a variation of two years is perpetually ſeen in the claſhing accounts of reſpectable writers. Surely a clear elucidation of this ſubject was to have been looked for; and eſpecially as it is wanted both in VAILLANT and FRŒLICH.

"The firſt who drew out a regular ſeries of the Syrian kings from their coins was *Vaillant*. Many of his coins are taken from other books; and the few in his own cabinet rarely correſpond with our ſeries. He is not, however, without merit; and we confeſs our obligations to him in the hiſtorical part of this work. His deficiencies are rather to be aſcribed to the little progreſs made at that time in this ſcience. His efforts, ſuch as they were, excited, as he foreſaw they would, others to a more exact and diligent reſearch.

"Eraſmus *Frœlich*, a German Jeſuit, ſet about digeſting the hiſtory of this period into chronological order, and illuſtrating it with the greateſt number of coins, in his "Annales Regum Syriæ. Vien. 1744," folio; augmented and corrected in a ſecond edition, Vien. 1754,

1754, folio. The assistance derived from his notes and extracts from the ancient historians we need not be ashamed to acknowledge in the present compilation."

Having annexed *Pellerin's* account of these works, with what himself and Belley have added of their own, and noticed the great work in Dutch, published by Havercamp in three volumes folio, enriched and illustrated with thousands of historical coins, Mr. Gough proceeds to observe, that

"Frœlich includes under *Syrian* coins all that had any relation to the Syrian kings and cities; even the *Samaritan* coins of the Maccabæan princes. This latter class Mr. Duane seems not to have taken in.

As, however, Mr. Gough considered those coins to be of so much importance, "in their connection with the story of the Maccabees," we cannot but think, though omitted by Mr. Duane, they should have been here introduced; especially as they have been the subject of various publications, and, in particular, of two most elegant volumes in quarto by BAYER; which, for paper, typography, and engraving, have never been rivalled. The latter of these contains the late *Abbé* BARTHELEMY's revision of what he had written on the subject, at the request of Mr. *Henley*, who published strictures upon parts of the first volume of *Bayer*; and has, as we have heard, ever since their controversy (which passed through the hands of Barthelemy, as their common friend) a work by him on that subject, in a state of preparation for the press.

Mr. Gough proceeds to the monograms on his coins; and after observing on the deficiencies of Spanheim, Frœlich, Montfaucon, Schlaegel, Haym, the authors of the "Nouveau Traite de Diplomatique," and having noticed a falsity in Pinkerton, he *pointedly* remarks, that "no explanation is offered to the tables of 420 in Dr. Hunter's coins," which, he asserts, "are more faithfully represented in the tables in Rasch's (always so printed, instead of Rasche) *Lexicon Numismaticum*, to the number of 455." On this head, however, we beg leave to hint, that so far as Dr. Combe's list extends, it was copied by the engraver of Rasche, who had not, nor could have, access to the coins: and whatever merit Mr. Gough's plate may possess, we must confess that we have derived but little assistanee from his *own* illustrations of it; though such monograms in it as have been accurately explained by others are certainly of use.

In respect to any former engravings of these coins, Mr. Gough justly asserts, that it is impossible to cite them for portraits of the sovereigns they exhibit, but that, in the representations

ſentations by Bartolozzi, the likeneſs of the reſpective princes is preſerved.

A liſt follows of the principal hiſtorians that remain whoſe writings illuſtrate his ſubject; and an obſervation is annexed on the ſizes of the coins, for the purpoſe of introducing a petulant, and, we will add, injudicious ſarcaſm, on "the editors of the Greek cities in Dr. Hunter's collection, the firſt who have added the weight of each coin." For, though "allowance muſt be made for the wear of time and accident," yet, as is the caſe in reſpect to moſt of theſe coins, there is no ſuch wear to be allowed for; and if, in general, there be "neither opportunity nor leiſure to procure weights for the purpoſe," of ſo much more importance would it be for Mr. Gough to have weighed them.

In an *introduction* proper to the work, our author begins with a ſhort account of the kingdom of Syria, as ariſing with that of Egypt from the Macedonian empire; the former ſubſiſting 251 years under a ſucceſſion of twenty princes, called *Seleucidæ*, including two uſurpers; the latter 294 years, under a ſucceſſion of fourteen princes, known by the name of *Ptolemies*.

An account of the kingdom of Syria is next given from Strabo, which is followed by an extract from Pococke, containing a deſcription of the modern ſtate of that country.

The diſmemberment of Alexander's empire being a ſubject of conſiderable intereſt in hiſtory, and the effects conſequent upon it, having been explicitly foretold in Scripture, Mr. Gough thinks he ſhould not be juſtified were he to withhold the information conveyed by the Spirit of inſpiration. After, therefore, ſpecifying the particulars and elucidating the facts, the introduction is cloſed with a pertinent quotation from Biſhop Newton on the Prophecies; and is followed by Frœlich's Chronological Summary of the Syrian Kings, with the year of the Seleucidæ, and thoſe before Chriſt, prefixed to each reign.

A table of the plates, with references, next occurs; and here we cannot but expreſs our regret, that though they could not have been given from the hand of Bartolozzi, Mr. Gough had not added a plate or two more by the artiſt that engraved Dr. Hunter's coins, which would have completed the claſs of the Syrian, and might have been eaſily procured for the purpoſe. A genealogical table of the Seleucidæ terminates the prefatory apparatus.

The work itſelf opens with the hiſtory of Seleucus the Firſt. In following two ſuch pioneers as *Vaillant* and *Frœlich*, it might be concluded that the mines of erudition in this depart-

ment

ment were exhauſted; but the induſtry of Mr. Gough has not been ſatisfied without further exertions. In the beginning of this reign, we find in ſome meaſure ſupplied, what we before ſtated the want of, a diſquiſition on the æra of the Seleucidæ; yet, on a topic of ſo much conſequence to hiſtory at large, we cannot but regret that the grounds of the deciſions concerning its commencement ſhould not have been ſtated more diſtinctly, and the authorities for each hypotheſis formally adduced. It is a fault too often incident to works of this kind, that their authors, inſtead of citing, ſimply refer to the paſſages relied on, and thus leave thoſe readers perplexed who may not have the books at hand that contain them. Having related, that through the miſconduct of Demetrius, Babylon was loſt to Antigonus, Mr. Gough thus proceeds:

"From this retaking of Babylon by Seleucus commences the famous æra of the Seleucidæ uſed all over the Eaſt by the Jews, Chriſtians, and Mohamedans. The Jews ſtyle it the *Æra of Contracts*, becauſe they were obliged, when ſubject to the Syro-Macedonian princes, to expreſs it in all their contracts and civil writings. This method of computing their years they followed till the tenth century of the Chriſtian æra, which, on their being obliged to remove into the Weſt, they learnt of the Chriſtian chronologers of thoſe parts to compute by the years of the creation. The ſame æra is called by the Arabs *Taric Dehl Kharnain*, or the *æra of the two-horned*, which appellation ſome derive from Alexander the Great, who, in the Koran and other Arabian books, is frequently called the *two-horned*; perhaps from his pretended relation to Jupiter Ammon: but he was dead twelve years before Seleucus recovered Babylon, from which event the æra of the Seleucidæ commenced. Others therefore derive the epithet from Seleucus himſelf, whom Appian repreſents as of ſuch extraordinary ſtrength, that, ſeizing a bull by the horns, he could ſtop him in his full career, and was therefore, by ſtatuaries, repreſented with two bull's horns on his head. In the two books of Maccabees it is called the *æra of the kingdom of the Greeks*, and they both uſe it in their dates, with this difference, that the firſt of thoſe books and Joſephus begin the years of this æra from the ſpring month *Niſan*, and the others from the autumn, or the month *Tiſri*, following. Thus the Jews, who began with Niſan, being ſix months before the Antiochians, who begin with Tiſri, ſeem to be a whole year before the latter, who are followed by Euſebius, in his Chronicle, as Scaliger thinks. The fact is, they both agree in reckoning the years of the Seleucidæ from Tiſri to Niſan; but from Niſan to Tiſri the Jews precede the Antiochians by ſix months. Ptolemy of Alexandria, in his Great Syntaxis begins the æra at the following month *Thot*, or ſpring of the following year, and calls it the calculation of the Chaldeans; not reckoning Seleucus ſettled in Babylon till Demetrius

trius ſon of Antigonus retreated from it, which was not till the ſpring of the following year.

"Some writers date the beginning of Seleucus's reign from his recovery of Babylon, when this æra began; others from the partition twelve years after, on the death of Antigonus and defeat of Demetrius at Ipſus: ſo that, according to ſome, he reigned twenty, according to others thirty two, years; for he died twenty years after that battle, and thirty-two after the recovery of Babylon. We have followed Euſebius and Uſher."

Avoiding, however, all other diſcuſſion, it remained for Mr. Gough to have added, that, according to the ordinary date, this epoch, taking its riſe *twelve years after the death of Alexander*, coincides with the *beginning of the hundred and ſeventeenth Olympiad*, and the *four thouſand four hundred and ſecond year of the Julian period*. But to be more particular; the æra of the Seleucidæ, Greeks, or Syro-Macedonians, falls in with the year of Rome 441, and 311 full years before the birth of Chriſt; the form of the year itſelf being *Julian*, and the months *Roman*; to which, however, the names of the Syrian months were applied. This uſage prevailed not only in the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, but almoſt throughout the Eaſt, and continues very generally even now. The Greeks of Syria made it commence from the Macedonian month Gorpiæus, anſwering to the Syrian month Elul, and our September; and to this mode of reckoning the catholics of Syria at preſent adhere. The other Syrians, however, take it for the firſt of the Macedonian Hyperberetæus, coincident with the Syrian Tiſri and our October, in which they are followed by the Neſtorians. Different cities of Syria, as their medals and other monuments evince, had their own method of dating: thus, at Tyre they began from the 19th of October, at Gaza from the 28th of that month, and at Damaſcus from March 21ſt.

The Jews, as Mr. Gough has remarked, while ſubject to the Greeks, adopted alſo this æra, being compelled to uſe it in all their civil concerns. The 23d of September, however, was the date whence they proceeded; and it is not 350 years ſince they exchanged it for that of the creation, which is followed by them at preſent.

In reſpect to this epoch of the Seleucidæ, the Arabs differ among themſelves in reverting to its origin, ſome counting from October, and others from the 1ſt of September.

This diverſity extends not only to days and months, but to years; for, while the Jews and Arabs proceeded from the 311th, or a point in the 312th year before Chriſt, it is evident, from various authorities, that the Babylonians and others carried

ried it a year further back, making it precede not only the 311th, but even go to the 310th year before the vulgar era. The ſame rule is adopted by the catholics in Syria.

The neceſſity of attending to theſe variations, as they occaſion great contrarieties in any general application, is obvious. But let us return to Seleucus. Mr. Gough continues his hiſtory to the end; and after enumerating the different years aſſigned to his reign by different hiſtorians, particularly Polybius, Appian, and Juſtin, a variety of traits are collected which diſcriminate his character, and ſhow him to have been, in many lights, an extraordinary man.

Subjoined to the hiſtory of his reign a deſcription occurs of the coins, which is, however, too vague to ſatisfy an accurate medaliſt. Of this, not to inſtance ſeveral others, No. 9, Plate I. is a ſtriking example; for what Mr. Gough ſtyles, an "old bearded head laureate," is as decidedly the head of Jupiter as if the name had been inſcribed a hundred times on it.

The deſcriptions here mentioned are followed by remarks in reſpect to the devices on the preceding coins, gleaned from Vaillant, Pellerin, Geſſner, Eckhel, Raſche, &c. interſperſed with remarks by the author. One in particular is deciſive, on a ſubject which has occaſioned much controverſy, or at leaſt contrariety, of opinion: "It has been doubted whether theſe heads ſo habited (that is, in the lion's ſkin) were thoſe of the kings or Hercules. In the caſe of Alexander the likeneſs is ſo uniformly preſerved, as to put it out of all diſpute that they repreſent him."

If, however, Mr. Gough will condeſcend to peruſe what has been written on this ſubject (in addition to what Winkelmann, Barthelemy, Eckhel, Le Blond, and others, had advanced) by VISCONTI, he would perhaps ſee reaſon to be leſs poſitive in aſſerting his opinion; and while we take the liberty of referring him to the *Atlas* of CHAUSSARD annexed to his *Arrian*, where the opinions of theſe writers are collected, we will cite a paſſage from Horace, which, though not quoted by them, appears to us, notwithſtanding, concluſive on the queſtion.

> "Edicto vetuit, ne quis ſe, præter Apellem
> Pingeret, aut alius Lyſippo CUDERET æra
> Fortis Alexandri voltum ſimulantia."
>
> Epiſt. ad Auguſt. 239.

That CUDERET has here an expreſs reference to *coining* is obvious from the *Ars Poetica*, 59:

> "Signatum præſente nota *procudere* NUMMUM."

And let it be obſerved, that the coins in queſtion were all ſtricken in Aſia, and in cities widely apart.

Adhering to the plan thus deſcribed, Mr. Gough proceeds through the ſucceeding reigns, bringing together the principal tranſactions of each reign, rather as a dry narrative, than an hiſtorical illuſtration. Indeed, we have repeatedly looked in vain for ſuch diſcriminations of remark which a more ſkilful medaliſt could not have failed to ſupply. Thus, on the firſt and ſecond coins of Plate XIV. the figure on the reverſe is thus deſcribed: "A female figure in front, ſtanding, crowned; right hand extended, ſceptre in the left, on each ſide of her rays; and on each ſide her head two roſes." It is added, "Raſch (Raſche) calls this the figure of Aſtarte or Diana cœleſtis and gives the variations in the notes.* He gives a ſimilar figure in long garments, the head turreted; the right hand extended; in the left a ſtaff, ſurmounted by a croſs or Nilometer; perhaps Iſis." Now, when the whole of this deſcription is taken into account, it will be found more inaccurate and confuſed than can well be imagined. What are ſtyled rays on each ſide of this figure are decidedly two ſtrings of *phalli*. If the figure were determinately Iſis, it might be pronounced that what Mr. Gough calls *roſes* on either ſide her head, were deſigned for lotus-flowers; but if the goddeſs be *Diana cœleſtis* they may be more properly taken for *ſtars*. Whoever has taken the pains to examine their properties muſt know that *Diana cœleſtis* and the Syrian *Aſtarte* were very different perſonages. We think alſo, it will be difficult to diſcover any nilometer in the form of a croſs. The *turreted* head too required a different epithet; as well as, from the rareneſs of the ornament, a more particular notice. In a word, ſuch random and incoherent deſcriptions ſerve only to miſlead and perplex.

Concerning the horn of the wild goat which appears ſo conſpicuouſly in the helmet of Tryphon, and was, as Mr. Gough remarks, his peculiar badge, it may be obſerved that it was aſſumed by him as *αὐτοκράτωρ*, and perhaps as the ſymbol of the notable horn which diſtinguiſhed Alexander, the *He-goat* of Greece. See Daniel viii.

We have obſerved, that wherever Phœnician inſcriptions occur they are left to the reader's ſagacity, without any effort to explain them, though there is not one of the whole which does not appear perfectly legible, and therefore, as we ſhould imagine, might have been expected to be explained.

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* 1. With rays and flowers, and vittæ pendant. 2. Holding an apple or ball. At her feet a crooked ſtick. 3. Three ſtars.

It

It would have been eaſy to have adduced many other examples, but we forbear:

Non omnia poſſumus omnes.

If the medalic part of this volume be not what in every reſpect we could have wiſhed, it ſtill conſtitutes a very uſeful work; and, when regarded as the vehicle of the fineſt engravings in their kind, will entitle the author to the thanks of the public.

As connected with particulars in the hiſtory of the Kings of Syria, Mr. Gough has added to his volume *Six Appendixes*; containing 1ſt. An inſcription to Jupiter *Botziæus*, found by Dr. Chandler at Huſſein Solamon, in Syria, and publiſhed in the Appendix to that gentleman's "Inſcriptiones Antiquæ," which contains a grant to the god of the diſtrict whence the epithet is derived, and which was formerly held by the governor of Apamea, with all its produce and appurtenances, to be expended in monthly ſacrifices by the prieſt of the god; ordaining aſſemblies to be gratuitouſly holden on the 15th and 30th of every month, and that the town ſhould become an aſylum.

The decree itſelf is conveyed in the form of a letter from King Antiochus; and to it is ſubjoined a ratification by Auguſtus, of that part which related to the ſale of ſlaves and cattle, &c. toll-free.

The Second *Appendix* contains the ſubſtance of the decree found on a ſtone at Sigæum in honour of Antiochus I. ſon of Seleucus, for his attention to the cities of Seleucis, brought to England by Edward Wortley Montagu, ambaſſador to the Ottoman Porte, and publiſhed by Churchill in his "Antiquitates Aſiaticæ," with illuſtrations.

From the ſame ſource Mr. Gough has derived his Third *Appendix*, which exhibits

"An intereſting inſcription of Seleucus Callinicus and his brother Antiochus Hierax, in the temple of Apollo Branchidas, or Dydimæus, at Miletus, now called by the Turks *Joran*, over-againſt Samus, commemorating their great obligations to the Gods Saviours, for preſerving Seleucus, contrary to all expectation, when Ptolemy invaded his kingdom with a large hoſt of Gauls, and bringing about a peace between him and Ptolemy Euergetes, in the year of the Seleucidan æra 70, and of Seleucus's reign 4, 243 years before Chriſt. It exhibits his letter to the Mileſians; his order for a ſacrifice to Apollo; and a liſt of veſſels, ointments, and ſpices, preſented by him to the temple.

As the order for ſacrifice, and ſpecification of the votive offerings are remarkable in themſelves, as well as capable of illuſ-

illuſtrating ſeveral curious topics of antiquity, they are here annexed:

" Kings Seleucus and Antiochus have dedicated the articles enumerated in the following letter.

" King Seleucus to the ſenate and people of Miletus, Health. We have ſent, by the bearer Poleanthes, to the temple of Apollo in Didymis, a large candleſtick and cup of gold and ſilver, with their reſpective inſcriptions, to be dedicated to the Gods Saviours. When they come to your hands receive them, with good luck, and place them in the temple, that ye may have veſſels wherewith to preſent libations, and ſerve out ointments, on account of our health and proſperity, and the proſperity of your city, agreeable to the wiſhes of us both. Make uſe of the rich Polianthean ointment herewith ſent; and, after dedicating theſe preſents, offer a ſacrifice, which we take this opportunity to preſcribe. Be careful that all be done in the accuſtomed manner. A liſt of the gold and ſilver articles for the temple is ſubjoined, that ye may know both the ſort and the weight of each piece. Farewell."

" A baſon* caryota, inſcribed to *Good Fortune;* weight 247 drachms.

Another to *Themis*, weight 190 dr.

Another to *Latona*, weight 193 dr. 3 oboli.

Another to *Hecate*, weight 113 dr.

A pair of cups Παλιμποτων, adorned with goats†, to *Apollo*, weight 318 dr. 3 ob.

Another pair, with a figure of a ſtag, to *Diana;* weight 161 dr.

A horn, to *Jupiter the Saviour*, weight 173 dr. 3 ob.

A patent‡, for the *Gods Saviours*, weight 387 dr.

A cooling cup of precious ſtones§, to the *Saviour Goddeſs*, having 10 pendant dates‖; weight 372 dr.

A golden bowl¶, weight 1088 dr.

Total of the weight of gold plate 3248 dr. 3 ob. or 1048*l.* ſterling, 19*s.* 10*d.*

A ſilver cup emboſt with figures of animals, and filled with the ointment of ſweet reed**; weight 380 dr.

A large ſilver cooling cup, with two handles; weight 9000 dr. together making, of our money, 302*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*

10 talents of frankincenſe.

1 talent of myrrh.

2 minæ of caſſia.

2 minæ of cinnamon.

2 minæ of coſtus.

A large golden candleſtick.

The ſacrifice appointed to Apollo was to conſiſt of 1000 victims on ten altars.

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* phiala. † τραγελαφων. ‡ διπτυχα. § Ψυκτηρ Βαρβαρικος Λιθοκολλος. ‖ ακροπλινθια κάρυα. ¶ μοζονομον. ** Σχοινις.

The

The *Polianthean* ointment here ſpecified may be conſtrued, "Huile *a mille fleurs.*" *Caryota* is a cup adorned with dates. The *Palimpoton* was contrived to be ſecretly repleniſhed as faſt as it was emptied.

The *Marmor Adulitanum*, copied in the ſame collection, recites the acquiſition of Syria, &c. the dominions of Seleucus, by the arms of Ptolemy Euergetes, without mentioning his name. A coin of him occurs in our Pl. IV."

The Fourth *Appendix* conſiſts of "The treaty between the Smyrneans, Magneſians, and Seleucus Nicator." The Fifth contains "The decree of the Delphians, in gratitude to Antiochus III.; and the laſt, of that on the ſtone of Roſetta, taken from the French at the ſurrender of Egypt, and now in the Britiſh Muſeum.

To his tranſlation of this decree Mr. Gough has prefixed many preliminary and pertinent obſervations; but whatever merit may be attached to it, as being the reverſe of tardy, there is an adage, in noticing this circumſtance, that occurs to our mind, "of making more haſte than good ſpeed," which we cannot help conſidering as not *quite* inapplicable on this occaſion. Nor, however induſtrious were Meſſrs. De Sacey and Akerbläd, does it appear that they are altogether exempt from a ſimilar imputation, if they attempted explanations without the pre-requiſite data. That the Engliſh literati were ſo long without poſſeſſing a ſingle copy of the eaſieſt of the three inſcriptions, as to give the foreign gentlemen juſt mentioned an opportunity of anticipating them by the explanations they have offered of "the moſt difficult," though deſigned as a ſlur on the Society of Antiquaries, was no fault of theirs. Mr. Gough ought to have known that copies printed from the ſtone itſelf were ſent to M. de Sacey immediately on its diſcovery; and alſo that, as ſoon as poſſible after its arrival, the ſtone was depoſited where Mr. Gough, had he choſen, would have been free to have copied it.

The fact in reſpect to theſe inſcriptions is, that after all which has been hitherto done much remains to be explained. Many objections certainly lie againſt Mr. Gough's tranſlation, and we doubt not that when he ſhall have conſidered the original more maturely, he will feel himſelf diſpoſed to publiſh his corrections.

Expecting to have our attention called again to this ſubject, we may then deſcend to thoſe particulars, from which, by its incidental occurrence here, and the length of this article, we are at preſent precluded.

ART. LXXVI. *The Metrical Miſcellany; conſiſting chiefly of Poems hitherto unpubliſhed; 2d Edition*, pp. 271. Price 6s. Cadell and Davies. London, 1803.

THE compilation of a volume like that which is now offered to our conſideration, at firſt view ſeems to be an eaſy taſk. It is in fact, however, attended with no inconſiderable difficulties, and gives occaſion to the exerciſe of much diſcretion. With regard to poetical pieces which have been already publiſhed indeed, nothing more than common obſervation is requiſite to enable a collector to ſelect ſuch as have been received with general applauſe. But the appreciation of manuſcripts furniſhed by the kindneſs or by the vanity of friends, impoſes a more arduous taſk. It requires a critical eye to diſcern, and no common degree of fortitude to declare, that the copy of verſes which has been well received by the partiality of intimate acquaintance is not ſufficiently ſpirited or correct to ſtand the teſt of the unbiaſſed judgment of the public. Wanting theſe qualifications, collectors of poetical miſcellanies have uſhered into the world many a feeble ſtanza which ought to have been condemned to the modeſt retirement of the port-folio or the deſk. The ambition of adorning their pages with the names of eminent characters, not unfrequently alſo induces even the more fortunate of theſe gleaners in the field of poetry to admit into their collections the careleſs effuſions of men of genius and talents, which like an illegitimate offspring, their parents are unwilling to countenance by introducing them to the world under the ſanction of their own protection. On theſe accounts we muſt acknowledge that we look with a ſuſpicious eye upon poetical garlands, wreaths, noſegays and beauties; nor was our jealouſy allayed by the annunciation of the prettily alliterative title of the "Metrical Miſcellany."

On examining this volume, however, our ſeverity was diſarmed; and we are happy to avail ourſelves of this opportunity of thanking the fair Editor for the pleaſure which we have derived from its peruſal. Her table of contents is graced by the names of the Hon. Henry Erſkine, Roſcoe, Darwin, Barbauld, Sheridan, Mathias, Cumberland, W. and T. Smyth, Fox and Fitzpatrick, &c. From ſome of theſe diſtinguiſhed favourites of the Muſes ſhe has obtained permiſſion to publiſh poems which had previouſly been confined to manuſcript. In her ſelection both of publiſhed and unpubliſhed pieces ſhe has evinced an elegant taſte, and has, with very few exceptions, avoided the errors into which, as we have intimated above, the collectors of fugitive poems are too apt to fall.

Throughout

Throughout the volume are interſperſed ſeveral copies of verſes of her own compoſition. Though our gallantry will not carry us ſo far as to ſay that theſe conſtitute the diſtinguiſhed ornament of her book, critical juſtice will, we believe, authorize us to declare that ſeveral of them ſhoot a brilliant ray even from amidſt the bright conſtellation by which they are ſurrounded.

In making our ſelections from this volume, we ſhall give precedence to the ladies. In ſo doing we are not influenced by the maxims of chivalry alone: for we are inclined to beſtow the palm upon the following exquiſite piece of Mrs. Barbauld, intitled

" TO-MORROW.

" See, where the falling day
In ſilence ſteals away,
Behind the weſtern hills withdrawn;
Her fires are quench'd, her beauty fled,
With bluſhes all her face o'erſpread,
As conſcious ſhe had ill fulfill'd
The promiſe of the dawn!

Another morning ſoon ſhall riſe,
Another day ſalute our eyes
As ſmiling and as fair as ſhe,
And make as many promiſes;
But do not thou
The tale believe,
They 're ſifters all,
And all deceive."

In the COMPLAINT, written by the Editor, Mrs. Riddel, we find true pathos expreſſed in ſimple and elegant language.

" THE COMPLAINT.

BALLAD.*

" Reſt, reſt dear babe, in balmy ſleep repoſing,
No care, no ſorrow moves thy tranquil breaſt;
Reſt, till the dawn thy gentle eyes unclоſing
Shall wake that ſmile in which alone I'm bleſt.

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* " Tu dormis, volitantque qui ſolebant
" Riſus, in roſeis tuis labellis.
" Dormi, parvule! nec mali dolores,
" Qui matrem cruciant, tuæ quietis
" Rumpant ſomnia," &c. MARKHAM.

Theſe pathetic lines firſt ſuggeſted the idea of the foregoing ballad, although the author, deſpairing of ſucceſs in following the beautiful original cloſely, has ventured to depart from the *incident* the ſucceeding lines adverted to.

Hush thee, sweet babe! let nought disturb thy slumbers,
Thy Mother fondly o'er thy cradle hung,
Thus frames for thee the soothing, fav'rite numbers,
For thee her vigils thus beguiles with song.

Alas! my child, for thee no *father's* bosom
Throbs to soft sympathy and fond alarm;
No shelt'ring arm protects thy tender blossom,
And screens its weakness from life's gath'ring storm.

In vain with tears and suppliant accents blended,
His infant seeks its sacred rights to claim;
Tho' truth and honour for those claims contended,
Honor and truth—to him—are but a name.

Vainly to him this faithful heart appealing,
Which Passion's tend'rest truest flame still warms,
Urges those oft-pledg'd vows, each generous feeling
Tho' now forgot—which gave me to his arms.

How can he thus forego the soft relations
That bind with mutual ties his soul to me,
How can he lose those ever-dear sensations
Which swell to rapture as I gaze on thee?

Oft o'er thy lovely form while pensive musing,
His smile, his features, with delight I trace,
Each painful thought in melting fondness losing,
I clasp *his image* in my child's embrace.

O may that Pow'r who hears my sad lamenting,
And guards my Nurseling with a parent's eye,
Restore his heart, at Nature's voice relenting,
To faith's firm bonds, and Love's forgiving sigh.

Sleep on, dear babe! no thoughts like these oppress thee,
Mild Innocence thy peaceful temples crowns;
No anxious doubts, no keen regrets distress thee,
No brooding care around thy cradle frowns.

Those tranquil looks suspend thy mother's anguish,
Those artless smiles her drooping heart sustain;
Victim of broken vows tho' doom'd to languish,
She lives in THEE to peace and hope again."

The stanzas to Laura are a happy effusion of the chastened genius of Mr. W. Smyth, and evince that delicacy of sentiment and style which characterises his "English Lyrics."

"TO LAURA.

1.

"You bid me sing the song you love,
I hear, and wake the favour'd lay;
For Laura's lips no wish can move,
But I am blest when I obey.

Yet

Yet while you bend the ſtrain to hear,
My fancy flies on wayward wing,
And turns to him, the poet dear,
Who form'd the ſong you bid me ſing.

2.

Dear to my heart for ever be
The bard who thus ſhall melt and charm,
In every age, each maid like thee
To nature juſt, to genius warm!
But ah! the Bard, where is he fled?
Like common forms of vulgar clay;
The ſhades of night are round him ſpread,
The bard has lived, and paſs'd away.

3.

And him, who thus with matchleſs art
To Muſic gave the poet's rhyme,
Touch'd with new eloquence the heart,
And wak'd to melody ſublime,
How vainly would my eyes require,
And ſeek within the realms of day,
For like the maſter of the lyre
He too has lived, and paſs'd away.

4.

'Mid Scotia's ſhadowy glens reclin'd,
Theſe notes ſome unknown minſtrel tun'd,
Yet where—to ſilent death reſign'd,
Reſts now the form the Muſe inſpir'd?
No veſtige points to rapture warm,
To grateful awe, the ſacred clay;
Alas! while lives the ſong to charm
All but the ſong has paſs'd away!

5.

Well, Laura, does that look reveal,
That penſive look, that ſoften'd eye,
How quickly thro' thine heart can ſteal
The thought refin'd that bids thee ſigh.
Not at thy will from want, from pain,
Exemption kind can genius claim;
And now thou mark'ſt with ſorrow vain
How frail its triumphs and its fame.

6.

Muſe on, and mourn, thou generous maid,
Ah! mourn for man thus doom'd to view
His little labours bloom and fade,
An hour deſtroy—an hour renew.
Vain humbled man! muſt every pride,
All thy fond glories feel decay?
Muſt every boaſt, if once allied
To thee, but live to paſs away?

Vain

7.

Vain humbled man! as tranſient flies
All that thy reaſoning mind rever'd;
In ſome lov'd maid thus ſinks and dies
All to thy inmoſt ſoul endear'd.
Oh, Laura! haſte thee to my breaſt!
Come, all thy life, thy love convey;
Oh! cloſer to my heart be preſt—
Doſt *thou* too live—to paſs away!"

We wiſh our limits would permit us to copy the Hon. T. Erſkine's "Imitation of the Idyllium of Moſchus on the death of Bion," and Mr. T. Smyth's "Mourner and Love," this not being the caſe we muſt content ourſelves with mentioning thoſe poems as deſerving diſtinguiſhed applauſe. By way of concluding the poetical feaſt which we have culled for our readers, from this volume, with a *bonne bouche* we ſhall cloſe our extracts by an "Ode to a Lily flowering by Moonlight," a poem of no common ſtamp, which, we are informed "was the early production of a ſon of Mr. Roſcoe of Liverpool."

"TO A LILY FLOWERING BY MOONLIGHT.

"Oh! why, thou lily pale,
Lov'ſt thou to bloſſom in the wan moonlight,
And ſhed thy rich perfume upon the night?
When all thy ſiſterhood,
In ſilken cowl and hood,
Screen their ſoft faces from the ſickly gale?
Fair horned Cynthia wooes thy modeſt flower,
And with her beaming lips
Thy kiſſes cold ſhe ſips,
For thou art aye her only paramour;
What time ſhe nightly quits her ſtarry bow'r,
Trick'd in celeſtial light
And ſilver creſcent bright,
Oh! aſk thy veſtal queen
If ſhe will thee adviſe,
Where in the bleſſed ſkies
That maiden may be ſeen,
Who hung like thee her pale head thro' the day,
Love-ſick and pining for the evening ray;
And liv'd a virgin chaſte, amid the folly
Of this bad world, and died of melancholy?
Oh tell me where ſhe dwells!
So on thy mournful bells,
Shall Dian nightly fling
Her tender ſighs to give thee freſh perfume,
Her pale night-luſtre to enhance thy bloom,
And find thee tears to feed thy ſorrowing."

ART. LXXVII. *Attempt to inveſtigate the Cauſe of the Egyptian Ophthalmia, with Obſervations on its Nature, and different Modes of Cure. By George Power, Aſſiſtant Surgeon to the Twenty-third Regiment of Foot, or Royal Welſh Fuſileers.* 8vo. Price 2*s.* 6*d.* Murray. 1803.

WE have been highly gratified with the peruſal of this ſenſible and well-written pamphlet. The author was attached to the medical ſtaff of the Britiſh army that ſerved during the campaign in Egypt, in the year 1801; and had the charge of ſeveral hundred patients afflicted with complaints incidental to the climate. A few of the firſt pages are occupied by a conciſe hiſtory of the diſeaſe. The author finds abundant reaſon to be diſſatisfied with the moſt plauſible hypotheſes that have been framed in order to explain its origin. That the particles of ſand, which abound in the Egyptian atmoſphere, are not the efficient cauſe of ophthalmia, appears ſufficiently evident from the following conſiderations: firſt, the Bedouin Arabs, who inhabit the Deſert, are exempt from it; and General Baird's army, on their arrival at Cairo, after a fatiguing march over the Iſthmus of Suez, did not ſeem to have ſuffered from ophthalmia. Secondly, our ſoldiers were found to contract the diſeaſe chiefly in the night, when the heavy dews prevented the duſt from floating; and alſo when they were poſted in the moſt fertile parts of the country. Thirdly, the diſeaſe occurred in places where this cauſe could not poſſibly have operated. The author himſelf aſcribes the diſeaſe to the action of a putrid virus diffuſed through the atmoſphere, on bodies previouſly diſpoſed to favour its operation by general and local debility.

With a view to explain this *unknown noxious quality* of the air, as it is termed by Volney, a few obſervations are offered by way of analyſis of the phyſical properties of the Egyptian atmoſphere, when impregnated with thoſe ſubſtances that ſeem to be the immediate cauſe of diſeaſe: the inveſtigation of the more ſubtile elements that compoſe it being reſerved for thoſe who have had more leiſure and better opportunities to attend to the ſubject. Theſe are, firſt, copious exhalations from animal and vegetable ſubſtances in a ſtate of putrefaction; which, in a climate like that of Egypt, muſt aſſume the higheſt poſſible degree of malignity. Secondly, the ſaline and earthy bodies formed by the ſpontaneous decompoſition of theſe effluvia, or by their combining with other ſubſtances in the atmoſphere to which they have a greater affinity. Theſe ſubſtances, whilſt ſuſpended in the atmoſphere, become new though leſs deſtructive cauſes of diſeaſe. Thus, the ammoniacal

niacal * and fixed alkaline ſalts, either in a naſcent ſtate, or combined with different acids, whilſt floating with the winds, or being depoſited with the dews, may tend to occaſion ulceration of the ſauces, the peeling off of the ſkin from the face and hands, and muſt be ſingularly prejudicial to the eyes. Add to theſe, myriads of moſkitoes, which by their troubleſome buzzing induce debility by preventing ſleep; and, by conſtantly irritating the ſurface of the body with their venomous bites, occaſion fever, not unfrequently attended with delirium; whilſt probably their ova or excrementitious matter, if depoſited on the eyes, the mouth, or even the outward ſkin, muſt materially affect the organ of viſion, and contribute to produce ulcers in the fauces, as well as thoſe ichorous blotches denominated by the natives *ſerpents breath*.

Under the ſecond head of *prediſpoſing* cauſes, the author enumerates, 1ſt. The corporeal as well as mental debility induced by the exceſſive heat of the climate; a too frequent uſe of the tepid and of the cold bath; exceſſive venery; the immoderate uſe of opium and tobacco; and the want of aliment ſufficiently nutritive. 2d. A peculiar prediſpoſition to ophthalmia ſeems to be produced by the vivid reflection of the ſun's rays from the glowing ſurface of a ſterile plain, bounded only by the horizon; at the ſame time that the eye, finding nothing to relieve the view or afford an idea of diſtance, becomes unavoidably exerted beyond its proper ſphere of action. 3dly. The cuſtom, which prevails amongſt the inhabitants, of ſleeping at night in the open air. One third of the men that compoſed the night picquets of the army encamped before Gheza, always returned from that duty with ophthalmia, and frequently with ulcerated fauces. The author regards the *putrid virus* as the chief ſource of diſeaſe in Egypt; and is of opinion, that the ſame virus, which partially applied produces ophthalmia, may, under a change of circumſtances, give origin to the plague, eruptive fever, or dyſentery.

"And

* "Ammonia, compoſed of azote and hydrogen, in its formation abſorbs the overplus of mephitic air, which the abſtraction of oxigen, or vital air, in the formation of nitre, would otherwiſe produce. The abundant production of this gaſeous fluid in Egypt, exhibits the ſimple yet unerring ways of Omniſcience, in ſecuring, amidſt the moſt jarring and tremendous elements, the ſafety and comfort of every living creature.

"The dung of camels, an animal peculiar to theſe climates, affords muriate of ammonia in the greateſt quantity; and I have often obſerved, that the fæces of a dog in Egypt emit a quantity of ammoniacal gas, ſufficiently pungent to affect not only the noſe, but the eyes themſelves." Page 18.

"And when we conſider the degree of health enjoyed by the Britiſh forces in the early period of the compaign, whilſt a liberal ſupply of animal food, and a moderate allowance of wine and ſpirits, ſupported their nature, energy, and vigour; and when we contraſt ſuch health with the mortality, as well as the general prevalence of ophthalmia which reigned at the ſame period amongſt the debilitated natives and Turks, it will appear very evident that this cauſe of diſeaſe exiſted conſtantly in Egypt, modified, as it ſhould ſeem, by ſome fortuitous coincidence of ſubordinate circumſtances.

"This enviable ſecurity, however, the Britiſh did not long enjoy; for when the fatigues of the march to Cairo, aggravated by repeated expoſure to viciſſitudes of heat and cold; the pain of a wound, diarrhœa, or other debilitating cauſes, had operated any length of time, and had rendered the ſyſtem ſuſceptive of contagion, the plague appeared ſo frequently at Roſetta, in common with ophthalmia and other diſeaſes, that it was found neceſſary to eſtabliſh a ſeparate hoſpital for the reception of patients ill of the former, and to prohibit the admiſſion of a ſingle patient into the general hoſpital, until a ſcrupulous examination of the ſymptoms had taken place. Under theſe inſpections, the great variety of diſeaſes that appeared, compared with the ſimilarity of circumſtances in which they were contracted, afforded a ſtriking proof of the general prevalence of the putrid virus in the atmoſphere, whilſt a general tendency to putrefaction rendered its conſtant exiſtence and increaſed acrimony within the hoſpitals equally evident. The ſmalleſt ſore ariſing from a common pimple would often ſpread to an alarming extent; and even ſuperficial wounds were generally attended with ſuch exquiſite pain and weariſome alternation of health and diſeaſe, that the patients themſelves frequently requeſted the amputation of a limb. And when this operation furniſhed the only likelihood of ſaving the patient, or of reſtraining the rapid progreſs of mortification, the wound produced by the hand of the ſurgeon almoſt uniformly aſſumed the ſame appearances as the original ſore; until nature, exhauſted, as it were, by repeated yet ineffectual efforts, yielded at length to the powerful influence of the putrid virus, and diſſolution cloſed the melancholy cataſtrophe."

The fifth ſection exhibits ſatisfactory proof of the contagious nature of ophthalmia; a circumſtance which, though well known to the ancients, may probably be new to a majority of our medical readers:

"That ſympathy has a very powerful effect in rendering this diſeaſe contagious appeared ſingularly evident.

"The firſt unequivocal inſtance of the ſort that occurred to me, was in the caſe of Madam Roſſetti, wife of the Imperial conſul at Cairo. This lady, who ſeldom or never went out of her houſe from an idea of the contagious nature of the diſeaſe, always avoided thoſe affected with it, having ſat at table, through complaiſance, oppoſite to

to a gentleman ill of incipient ophthalmia, felt its influence almoſt inſtantaneouſly, and the next day was confined to her room.

"Several ſailors of the different troop-ſhips, who, on inquiry, were found to have been ſeldom on ſhore, and had never before been attacked with ophthalmia, were very generally affected with it on their paſſage home, appearing to take the diſeaſe from the ſoldiers, many of whom were then ill of the complaint; and as rapid an inflammation of the eyes has been known to take place in many inſtances on board-ſhip at ſea as ever occurred on the plains near Cairo, or amongſt the floating volumes of comminuted granite, lime, and ſand, on the ſite of old Alexandria.

"It was obſerved at Aboukir, that one tent only in the line of encampment of Hompeſch huſſars had been particularly remarkable for infecting the men with ophthalmia. But other inſtances can be mentioned, ſhewing in ſo ſtrong a manner that this diſeaſe was propagated by infection, as to leave no doubt of its contagious nature.

"The Cambrian Rangers, a fencible regiment that had never been nearer to Egypt than Gibraltar, being frequently obliged to mount guard and aſſociate with the men of thoſe regiments which returned from that country, were frequently attacked with a diſeaſe that aſſumed preciſely the ſame appearance as the ophthalmia of Egypt.

"Others of the men, who had enjoyed for a conſiderable time perfect health, being in duty the ſucceeding winter in that garriſon, and becoming debilitated by expoſure to cold, diarrhœa, dyſentery, or a caſual exceſs in drinking, ſuffered ſeverely from ſore eyes, and were frequently found to be the comrades of convaleſcents from the ophthalmia.

"It has ſince been obſerved in Gibraltar, that recruits from England ſuffered unuſually from ophthalmia. I have witneſſed its contagious influence among the ſailors and ſoldiers who accompanied ſome blind invalids returning from that garriſon: and what will appear ſtill more concluſive, recruits who had never been out of England were attacked with an ophthalmy on joining regiments lately returned from Egypt."

We forbear to conduct our readers through the remaining chapters of this intereſting performance, which contain a full deſcription of the ſeveral varieties and progreſſive ſtages of the diſeaſe in queſtion; judicious comments on the practice of the native and European ſurgeons; and the account of a more ſucceſsful method of treatment, purſued under the author's direction in the hoſpital at Gheza.

ART. LXXVIII. DIATESSARON; *or, the Hiſtory of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, compiled from the four Goſpels, according to the authorized Verſion; with brief Notes, practical and explanatory: to which are prefixed, a Map of the Holy Land, and an Introduction. By the Rev. T. Thirlwall, M. A.* 8vo. pp. 244, price 6s. Rivingtons. 1803.

ART. LXXIX. *The* ENGLISH DIATESSARON; *or, the Hiſtory of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; from the compounded Texts of the four Evangeliſts, according to the authorized Engliſh Verſion: with Notes illuſtrative and explanatory, hiſtorical and topographical. Accompanied by a Map of the Holy Land, and copious Indexes. By the Rev. R. Warner.* Small 8vo. pp. 329, price 6s. Robinſons. 1803.

TO the very learned and indefatigable Profeſſor White we are indebted for both theſe volumes. The "Diateſſaron ſive integra hiſtoria Domini noſtri Jeſu Chriſti Græce," was publiſhed about four years ſince, in a form well adapted for circulation among young perſons who read and ſtudy the Greek language. For theſe a more important ſervice could not have been performed. Although it does not come within our plan to diſcuſs the merits of any work which has been ſo long before the public, we may obſerve, that the Greek Diateſſaron is divided into Parts, which are again ſubdivided into Sections. The *Firſt* contains that part of the Goſpel Hiſtory prior to the miniſtry of Chriſt, comprehending a period of thirty years and ſix months: the *Second* Part compriſes the events which took place between the baptiſm of Chriſt and the commencement of the firſt paſſover, a ſpace of about ſix months: in the *Third* Part we have related the hiſtory of the next twelve months from the commencement of the firſt paſſover: the *Fourth* Part compriſes the events of twelve months from the beginning of the ſecond paſſover: in the *Fifth* is related every circumſtance recorded of the twelve months which commenced with the third paſſover: the *Sixth* Part compriſes all thoſe intereſting events which occurred between the day on which the fourth paſſover was obſerved, to the end of the day which preceded the reſurrection: and in the *Seventh* and laſt Part we have an account of the events of forty days, from the day of the reſurrection to the aſcenſion.

Profeſſor White has alſo prefixed head pieces, or titles, to each of his Sections; and in the margin, on one ſide of each page, the *time* is noted, and on the other the *place* at which the ſeveral events occurred: theſe are given in the Latin language; and at the foot of the page are references to the Goſpels,

Gospels, as they are commonly divided into chapters and verses. In examining these references we have sometimes found them not strictly accurate, which we think it proper to notice that the next edition may be again compared with the original, and in order to do both Mr. Warner and Mr. Thirlwall the justice of saying that some trifling errors which escaped Dr. White we have found corrected in their translations.

Having thus given the outline of the Greek Diatessaron, we may observe that both Mr. Thirlwall and Mr. Warner have, as their titles import, adapted the common English translation to the Greek text. Mr. Warner has also translated the marginal notes, with regard to *time* and *place*, and the references to the authorized version, which Mr. Thirlwall has neglected. This we consider as a defect; nor can it be said to be by any means compensated by the Index at the end of the volume, in which these references are to be found properly arranged.

Mr. Thirlwall has given by way of introduction a brief account of the four Evangelists, and of the different sects which are mentioned in their history. This is an abridgment from select parts of Dr. Percy's Key to the New Testament.

Mr. Warner's introduction consists of a justification of the motives which led him to publish his work after Mr. Thirlwall's was finished, and of the correspondence which took place between himself and Dr. White, and the Bishop of Oxford; but he has added a translation of Dr. White's harmony, which Mr. Thirlwall has omitted: he has also given a full Index to the matter contained in the notes, and another of all the texts of Scripture explained, illustrated, or referred to, which we think is a valuable addition to any theological work.

There is still another point of comparison: our authors each give notes illustrative of the text: those in Mr. Thirlwall's work are short, meagre, and unsatisfactory; but the notes in Mr. Warner's book bear evidence of considerable reading, and some research; they contain a large body of the most interesting information, collected from our best authors; they illustrate the manners and customs of the times in which our Lord lived, and cannot fail to recommend the study of the New Testament as one of the most pleasant in which a person can engage.

We shall transcribe the following notes, which we have not selected as the best, but which may be considered as a fair specimen of the whole:

P. 36. "*The ruler of the feast.*" *John* ii. 9. The Greek word here is a compound, denoting the president of the triclinium, or guest

gueſt chamber, ſo called from its containing three couches placed in the form of a Greek Π, on which the gueſts reclined during the entertainment. It was the duty of this officer to prepare the feaſt, arrange the couches, diſpoſe the gueſts, place the diſhes, and taſte the wine and viands. Stockius in Verb. Lightfoot, in his Horæ Heb. Talmud, adds, "That he performed the duty of chaplain alſo, by ſaying grace, and pronouncing thoſe benedictions which were accuſtomed to be given upon the occaſion of a marriage. He bleſſed the cup alſo prepared for the gueſts; and having firſt drank of it himſelf, ſent it round to the company. In the book of Eccleſiaſticus (xxxii. 1.) we have an account of his duties."

P. 44. "*Give me to drink.*" *John* iv. 7. From Numbers xx. 19, it appears that water was anciently purchaſed at the wells eſtabliſhed throughout the "dry and barren" regions of the Eaſt, by the travellers, for themſelves and their flocks. The occaſion of the woman's ſurpriſe at this requeſt of our Saviour was, becauſe he aſked the water of her as a favour: "Give me to drink," not in the way of purchaſe; ſince from verſe the 8th it appears that the Jews had dealings of barter and ſale with the Samaritans. Haynes has a paſſage which illuſtrates agreeably the account of this employment of the woman of Samaria. "Upon entering the town," ſays he, "we ſaw two women filling their pitchers with water at the fountain I have already deſcribed, and about twelve others waiting for the ſame purpoſe, whom we deſired to pour into a trough which ſtood hard by, that our horſes might drink. We had ſcarcely made our requeſt before they inſtantly complied, and filled the trough, and the others waited with the greateſt patience. Upon returning them thanks, one of them with very great modeſty replied, "We conſider kindneſs and hoſpitality to ſtrangers as an eſſential part of our duty." *Harmer.*

P. 45. "*Living water.*" *John* iv. 11. Wells and ciſterns (in the Eaſt) differ from each other, in that the firſt are ſupplied with water by ſprings, the others by rain: both of theſe are to be found in conſiderable numbers in Judea; and are, according to Ranwolff, more numerous in theſe countries than ſprings that lie high; that is, than fountains and brooks of running water. Sir J. Chardin obſerved this difference in the Eaſt between wells of living water and reſervoirs of rain water, that theſe laſt have frequently, eſpecially in the Indies, a flight of ſteps down to the water, that as the water diminiſhes people may ſtill take it up with their hands; whereas he hardly ever obſerved a well furniſhed with theſe ſteps throughout all the Eaſt. But all reſervoirs of rain-water have not theſe ſteps. His mentioning the Indies in particular ſhews, that in the nearer parts of the Eaſt they frequently are without them, as well as thoſe receptacles of water that are ſupplied by ſprings; ſo the well to which the women of Samaria repaired, it ſeems, was nothing but a reſervoir of rain-water, ſince our Lord oppoſes its water, I think, to living water. If this remark be juſt, that which

is now ſhewn for that well cannot be the true place, for it is ſupplied by ſprings."—*Harmer.*

P. 154. "*Salute no man by the way.*" *Luke* x. 4. A ſign of haſte and of important buſineſs, 2 *Kings* iv. 29. *Newcome.* The miſſion upon which the diſciples of Chriſt were ſent was ſo important, that they were required to uſe the greateſt diſpatch, and to avoid thoſe things which might retard them, eſpecially if they were merely of a ceremonious nature. The injunction contained in this paſſage is thus to be underſtood, for it is not to be ſuppoſed that Chriſt would command his diſciples to neglect or violate any of thoſe cuſtoms unneceſſarily, which were in general uſe, and which were innocent in themſelves. In the preſent inſtance, had they been allowed to give and receive the common ſalutations, it is probable that their progreſs would have been inconſiderable for the time employed in it. —Of the truth of this ſtatement we may be ſatisfied from what Niebuhr ſays, (Travels, Vol. i, p. 302.) "The Arabs of Yemen, and eſpecially the Highlanders, often ſtop ſtrangers, to aſk whence they came, and whither they are going. Theſe queſtions are ſuggeſted merely by curioſity, and it would be indiſcreet therefore to refuſe an anſwer." This repreſentation of the matter certainly clears from the appearance of incivility a precept which Chriſt deſigned only to teach his ſervants a ſuitable deportment."—*Burder.*

P. 218. "*Say unto this mountain.*" *Mark* xi. 23. It was a common ſaying among the Jews, when they intended to commend any one of their doctors for his great dexterity in ſolving difficult queſtions, that "he was a rooter-up of mountains." In alluſion to this adage Chriſt tells his diſciples, that "if they had faith, they might ſay to a mountain, Be thou removed, and be thou caſt into the ſea, and it ſhould be done;" that is, in confirmation of the Chriſtian faith they ſhould be able to do the moſt difficult things. As theſe words are not to be taken in a literal ſenſe, ſo they are likewiſe to be reſtrained to the age of miracles, and to the Apoſtles, ſince experience convinces us that this is no ordinary and ſtanding gift belonging to the church." *Whitby in loc. Burder.*

ART. LXXX. *The Guide to Immortality; or, Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Chriſt by the four Evangeliſts; digeſted into one continued Narrative, according to the Order of Time and Place laid down by Archbiſhop Newcome; in the Words of the eſtabliſhed Verſion, with Improvements; and illuſtrated with Notes, moral, theological, and explanatory; tending to delineate the true Character and Genius of Chriſtianity. By Robert Fellowes, A. M.* 3 vols. 8vo. about pp. 1100, price 1*l.* 4*s.* White. 1804.

A More faſcinating title could not have been deviſed than that fixed on by Mr. Fellowes. Few of our ſpecies are ſo loſt to the feelings of virtuous ambition as not to thirſt after immor-

immortality. Whatever, then, ſhall profeſs to be the guide to the glorious ſcenes of future bliſs, merits the attention of every rational creature. That the hiſtory of our Lord is calculated to awaken in every believer in its authenticity a regard to his own everlaſting intereſts, will be generally admitted; and therefore any attempt to facilitate the ſtudy of this hiſtory is not only laudable in itſelf, but deſerves the encouragement and protection of the public.

We have in the preceding article given a ſhort account of two works in many reſpects ſimilar to that before us: they are, in fact, all three the offspring of Dr. White's "Diateſſaron."—Meſſrs. Thirlwall and Warner followed Dr. White exactly in the order of arrangement: Mr. Fellowes has in ſome reſpects differed from the learned profeſſor, by adhering more cloſely to Biſhop Newcome's "Harmony" than he has done. In the account of the reſurrection Dr. White followed the order of narration ſuggeſted by Dr. Townſon; but Mr. Fellowes has in this reſpect adhered to the arrangement of Benſon and of Newcome.

The text in Dr. Newcome's Harmony was at firſt diſpoſed according to Le Clerc's general manner; but in the courſe of a few years the candid author, after reconſidering the ſubject, acknowledged that Dr. Benſon's method of harmonizing the evangelical accounts of our Lord's reſurrection is the moſt ſimple and ſatisfactory, and that material parts of his own hypotheſis reſted on forced interpretations. Dr. Newcome, in conformity with this conviction, diſtributed among the purchaſers of his work a printed folio page, containing the corrections and additions which he conceived were wanting to make his Harmony more perfect, and conformable to the facts contained in the evangelical hiſtory. At the ſame time he publiſhed a ſeparate pamphlet, intitled, "A Review of the chief Difficulties in the Goſpel Hiſtory relating to our Lord's Reſurrection, intending to retract ſome Errors in the Greek Harmony."

Mr. Fellowes has availed himſelf of the labours of his predeceſſors, and has produced a valuable work; of which we ſhall extract his own account:

"The preſent work contains every particular of the four Evangelical hiſtories, formed into one clear, conſiſtent, and continued narrative, according to the order of time when, and the place where, the ſeveral events of our Lord's life happened, his miracles were wrought, and his diſcourſes were delivered. Thoſe who have little leiſure to peruſe many religious books, will accordingly, in theſe volumes, find every theological truth recommended which is neceſſary to be known, and every moral duty impreſſed which is neceſſary

to be practiſed; and, in ſhort, they will, I truſt, have a faithful and a cheering Guide to Immortality.

"Of thoſe corrections and improvements which, on the preſent occaſion, have been made in the eſtabliſhed verſion of the Evangelical Memoirs, I have been indebted for the far greater part to the highly meritorious and uſeful labours of Wakefield, Symonds, and Newcome; men whoſe erudition, ſagacity, and good ſenſe, will long endear their names to every lover of the Scriptures. In ſome few inſtances, (and they are but few) I have ventured to follow the dictates of my own judgment rather than abide by their authority."

"In the notes, which will be found very copious, I have endeavoured to the beſt of my ability to unravel what was intricate, and to elucidate what was obſcure; and though they are detached and iſolated, as notes muſt neceſſarily be, yet they will, I truſt, be found to harmonize in unity of intention, to explain and to enforce the great eſſentials of religion. In diſcharging the duty of a commentator I have derived much aſſiſtance from the labours of my predeceſſors, particularly of Grotius and Roſenmüller, from which I have transferred to my purpoſe many learned and judicious obſervations; but I have never copied their opinions, nor the opinions of any other writers, without having firſt expoſed them to a rigorous examination, and ſeparated, as far as I was able, the ſound from the ſpecious, the appoſite from the extraneous, and the weighty from the frivolous. Philological diſcuſſion, and learned quotations, I have, for the moſt part, ſtudiouſly endeavoured to avoid, that I might render theſe pages better adapted to a general circulation, and more acceptable to readers of both ſexes. On the moral precepts of Chriſt I have largely expatiated; and this I was prompted to do, that I might, from his own words at the top of the page, more clearly ſhew the true ſpirit and genius of the Chriſtian doctrine.—Seriouſly impreſſed with the neceſſity of cheriſhing myſelf, and of inducing others to cheriſh, that charity of ſentiment which is without any ſectarian exceptions or unſcriptural limitations, I have inculcated no tenets as important but thoſe of which Jeſus expreſsly affirmed the importance; and I believe that no doctrine will be found ſupported in theſe pages which is not beyond all controverſy authorized by the Scriptures."

This extract is but a very ſmall part of a well-written Preface, which embraces many important objects, and which exhibits a truly Chriſtian temper. Mr. Fellowes has paid conſiderable attention to the notes, but not ſo much as we could have wiſhed on the tranſlation: it would, in our opinion, have been more deſirable had he given a new verſion, after the manner of Archbiſhop Newcome's tranſlation of the New Teſtament, which appears to us by far the moſt perfect work on the Chriſtian Scriptures. A tranſlation indeed, to be uſeful to the great bulk of the people, muſt poſſeſs much of that ſimplicity of

of diction for which the common verſion is ſo diſtinguiſhed. In this reſpect, however, it is much to be regretted that there are a multitude of deficiencies, and ſome conſtructions that render the ſenſe obſcure. In many of theſe Mr. Fellowes has too cloſely copied the common Engliſh verſion: we ſhall refer to a ſingle inſtance, John vi, and 15th, "When Jeſus perceived that they were about to come and take him by force to make him a king, he withdrew [again] to a mountain *himſelf alone*." How much better does Mr. Wakefield's tranſlation read, "So when Jeſus perceived that they were going to take him by force, and make him a king, he withdrew to the mountain again by himſelf."

Our author's notes are chiefly confined to the explication of facts, which to the Engliſh reader are frequently obſcure, from the want of knowing ſomething of the manners and cuſtoms of the times in which our Lord flouriſhed, and of the nation in which he ſpent his valuable life. Of theſe we ſhall give a ſpecimen or two. In other inſtances, as with regard to the temptation of Chriſt in the wilderneſs, he has given his own theory, but not without fairly ſtating the opinion of others who have gone before, and who have differed from him — Thus in the inſtance of the temptation he ſays, "I think with the judicious Roſenmüller we may fairly infer, that he who is ſaid to have tempted our Lord, and to whom the name of the *Devil* is given, was ſome crafty and wicked miſcreant, ſome deſigning and factious man, who wiſhed to ſeduce Jeſus from the path of duty, and probably to render him ſubſervient to his own ambitious projects and intereſted views." In ſupport of this he refers to St. Peter, who ſays, "Be ſober, be vigilant; for your adverſary the *Devil*, like a roaring lion, is roaming about, ſeeking whom he may devour;" where the word *Devil* is evidently uſed to denote the ſanguinary adverſaries of the Chriſtian faith. And again, in St. Paul's Firſt Epiſtle to the Theſſalonians, he writes, "We would have come unto you, but *Satan* hindered us;" where the word *Satan* does not mean the fallen angel, whom we emphatically call "the DEVIL, but ſome enemy or enemies to the Chriſtian cauſe." Mr. F. adduces ſeveral hiſtorical facts alſo in ſupport of his own ideas, at the ſame time he acknowledges that ſome, and thoſe very orthodox divines, have thought the whole tranſaction took place in a prophetic viſion or dream. This theory has been ably ſupported by the late Mr. Farmer: it is, however, but fair to add, that Biſhop Pearce in his Commentaries, and the preſent learned and pious Biſhop of London in his Lectures, maintain the literal interpretation of this part of

holy writ. Mr. Fellowes, inſtead of reading with the Evangeliſts, in another part of the narrative, "all the kingdoms of the world," has rendered it "all the provinces of the land of Judea." In this interpretation he is partly ſupported by Biſhop Pearce, who ſays by the words "*all the kingdoms of the world*" perhaps no more is meant than the Jewiſh world, i.e. the ſeveral countries of Judea, Samaria, Galilee, &c. the tetrarchs of which were ſometimes called kings, and their tetrarchies kingdoms: for which ſee Mark vi. 23, and note on Matthew xiv. 9. And of all theſe Moſes is ſaid to have had a ſight from Mount Nebo, Deut. xxxiv. 1—4. What Matthew here calls κοσμος, is by Luke called οικουμενη; and both words ſeem to imply no more than the land of Judea in its large extent." See Biſhop Pearce *in loc.*

We ſhall now ſelect two or three of Mr. Fellowes's notes, from which the reader may form his judgment of the manner in which the whole is executed:

Luke xiii. 19. "*It is like a grain,*" &c. Under ſuch ſimilitudes as this and the following, our Lord ſeems, on ſeveral occaſions, to have repreſented to his diſciples the gradual but certain triumph of his religion over every oppoſition. The beginnings of his church were ſmall and contemptible, but it was by degrees to increaſe, like the ſtone that became a great mountain, and filled the whole earth; (ſee Dan. ii.) and his doctrine, which was at firſt confined within a ſpace ſo narrow, and embraced only by a few individuals in the loweſt circumſtances, was finally to be ſpread over every region of the globe, to be embraced by nations the fartheſt advanced in civilization and learning, to ſoften the manners, and to check the general depravity of mankind. Such predictions were well calculated to abate the dejection, to aſſuage the ſorrows, and to animate the hopes of the firſt followers of Jeſus; and the degree in which they have been already fulfilled, is to us a certain proof of the rock of truth on which our religion ſtands, and giving us a firm aſſurance that the many obſtacles by which it now is, or has for ages been oppoſed, will be gradually ſubdued; and that ſuperſtition and impiety will at laſt vaniſh before the meridian ſplendour of the Goſpel of immortality."

Matt. xxiv. 17. "*Him that is on the houſe-top,*" &c. This and the following injunction, "nor let him that is in the field," &c. in a ſtriking and lively manner repreſents the neceſſity of inſtant flight. The Chriſtians at this moment were to ſeek perſonal ſafety without attending to inferior conſiderations. The words "him that is on the houſe-top," may be illuſtrated by conſidering the ſtructure of the houſes in the Eaſt. "The roof or top of the houſe," ſays Biſhop Lowth, Iſaiah xxii. 1. "is always flat, covered with broad ſtones, or a ſtrong plaſter of terrace, and guarded, on every ſide, with a low parapet wall. (See Deut. xxii. 8.) The terrace is frequented as much

much as any part of the houſe. On this, as the ſeaſon favours, they walk, they eat, they ſleep, they tranſact buſineſs, (1 Sam. ix. 25.) they perform their devotions, (Acts x. 9.) When any thing is to be ſeen or heard in the ſtreets, any public ſpectacle, any alarm of a public nature, every one immediately goes up to the houſe top to ſatisfy his curioſity. The people's running all to the tops of their houſes gives a lively idea of a ſudden, general alarm." To the remarks of Lowth may be added from Wakefield, "that a ladder or ſtaircaſe ran along the ſide of the houſe, by which a man might go down into the ſtreet; and there was a kind of trap-door on the roof, through which he could go down into the houſe. Our Lord adviſes them to make the beſt of their way along the walk on the houſe-tops, and get out of the city gates as faſt as poſſible; and neither to enter the houſe at the ſtreet-door, by going down the ſides, nor immediately through the door in the roof."

Matt. xxv. 1. "*Who took their lamps,*" &c. It appears from travellers that lamps, wax candles, torches, lanterns, and creſſet lights (a kind of moveable beacon), are ſtill made uſe of among the Eaſtern people (Thevenot, Part II. page 35 and 37. Norden, Part I. page 124. Hanway.) I think alſo that there are only three words in the New Teſtament to expreſs theſe things by: of which, λυχνος ſeems to ſignify the common lamps that are uſed in ordinary life, (ſee Luke xv. 8.) which, according to Norden, afford but little light: λαμπας, which is one of the words which is made uſe of, John xviii. 3, ſeems to mean any ſort of light, that ſhines brighter than common, whether torches, blazing reſinous pieces of wood, or lamps, that are ſupplied with more than ordinary quantities of oil, or other unctuous ſubſtances; ſuch as that mentioned by Hanway in his Travels, Vol. I. p. 233, which ſtood in the court-yard of a perſon of ſome diſtinction in Perſia, was ſupplied with tallow, and was ſufficient to enlighten the whole place, as a ſingle wax candle ſerved for the illumination of the room where he was entertained; and ſuch, I preſume, were the lamps our Lord ſpeaks of in the parable of the virgins, which were ſomething of the nature of common lamps, for they were ſupplied with oil; but theſe were ſuppoſed to be ſufficient for enlightening the company they went to meet on a very joyful occaſion, which required the moſt vigorous lights. Sir J. Chardin, in his MS. note on Matt. xxv. 44, informs us, that in many parts of the Eaſt, and in particular in the Indies, inſtead of torches and flambeaux, they carry a pot of oil in one hand, and a lamp full of oily rags in the other. This ſeems to be a very happy illuſtration of this parable. He obſerves in another MS. that they ſeldom make uſe of candles in the Eaſt, eſpecially among the great; candles caſting but little light, and they ſitting at a conſiderable diſtance from them. Ezek. i. 13, repreſents the light of the lamp accordingly as very lively."

And as a concluſion of the whole, Mr. Fellowes has the following note upon John xx. 31. "*That ye may believe that Jeſus is the Chriſt, the Son of God.*"

"The doctrine and the miracles of Jesus were recorded by the evangelists principally to prove and confirm this great truth, that "Jesus is the Christ, the Son of God." Such was the plain, the unsophisticated, and simple confession of faith required by the apostles; and it would have been well for the peace and happiness of mankind, and for the increase of true righteousness and godliness in the world, if *Christian societies had never required any other*. But the original simplicity of the Christian faith has been perplexed or lost in a multiplicity of articles, and a confusion of creeds, which, instead of improving the morals, have only inflamed the passions of men, and given rise to endless disputations. May this book contribute to promote more rational notions, and to inspire a better spirit in the Christian world. I have written it only with that view, and I trust that there is not a sentiment contained in it, which can *justly* give occasion for any reproach on my integrity when living, or on my memory when dead."

In some respects we certainly differ in opinion from Mr. F. but in the main we hesitate not a moment in saying, that as a whole, the "Guide to Immortality" is an useful and valuable work. The English version is greatly improved, though not so much so as might have been wished; the notes contain a fund of interesting information, calculated to render the history of Christ and his apostles of more importance to the generality of readers; and the spirit of candour and Christian moderation displayed in every part of the work, entitle it to the regard of persons of all denominations. We must however add, that the price appears to us immoderately high, and will we apprehend necessarily check its sale.

ART. LXXXI. *Rural Philosophy, or Reflections on Knowledge, Virtue, and Happiness, chiefly in reference to a Life of Retirement in the Country. By Ely Bates, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 383. Price 7*s*. Longman and Rees; 1804. Second Edition.

IT is but little more than a twelvemonth since the first edition of the "Rural Philosophy" was presented to the public. The speedy demand for a new impression made us desirous of giving due attention to a work which has already excited a considerable share of curiosity. Mr. Bates was led to discuss the several topics contained in the volume before us, by a perusal of Zimmermann's Treatise on "Solitude," which has attained to much celebrity in this country; but which did not answer the expectations of our author, who, in speaking of Zimmermann, says, "In his Philosophy he appears to me superficial,

ſuperficial, and in his notions of virtue wild and romantic." In juſtification of his own plan, Mr. B. obſerves:

"That there exiſts at preſent amongſt us a lamentable want of rural philoſophy, or of that wiſdom which teaches a man at once to enjoy and to improve a life of retirement, is, I think, a point too obvious to be conteſted. Whence is it elſe that the country is almoſt deſerted; that the ancient manſions of our nobility and gentry, notwithſtanding all the attractions of rural beauty, and every elegance of accommodation can no longer retain their owners, who, at the approach of winter, pour into the metropolis, and even in the ſummer months wander to the ſea-coaſt, or to ſome other place of faſhionable reſort. This unſettled humour in the midſt of ſuch advantages, plainly argues much inward diſorder, and points out the need, as well as the excellency of that diſcipline, which can inſpire a pure taſte of nature, furniſh occupation in the peaceful labours of huſbandry, and, what is nobler ſtill, open the ſources of moral and intellectual enjoyment.

"It is indeed only in late times that this migratory ſpirit has been prevalent. Our great grandfathers were content to reſide in the country the year round. They were neither led abroad by the courſe of their education, nor by the amuſements and diſſipations of faſhionable ſociety, which are now arrived at ſuch a pitch of luxurious refinement, that to come within the verge of their influence is to loſe all power of return to rural ſimplicity; unleſs the mind is happily fortified againſt the ſeduction, by a philoſophy which can ſupply both pleaſure and employment without the aid of artificial life."

Mr. B. has divided his work into Four Parts, of which, the *firſt* is intitled, "Reflections on Knowledge:" the *ſecond*, "Reflections on Virtue:" the *third*, "Reflections on Happineſs," and the *fourth* part is an anſwer to objections made againſt a life of retirement.

The Reflections on Knowledge treat of the knowledge of God, and of his attributes, which is not to be attained without the aid of Revelation: of the knowledge of ourſelves, and of the world. In the former of theſe ſections ſome good rules are given, by due attention to which a perſon may attain to an acquaintance with his Maker. The author takes an opportunity of entering a ſpirited proteſt againſt ſeveral poſitions laid down in *Saint Pierre's Studies of Nature*, and farther on, but we think with much leſs juſtice, he reflects upon Dr. Paley for not having availed himſelf of the evidences of Chriſtianity, when he was treating upon "Natural Theology." Had Mr. Bates attended to the object and deſign of Dr. Paley's work, he would have ſeen, that to have reſorted to Chriſtian principles for illuſtrations or demonſtrations of the divine exiſtence would have injured, rather than benefited his plan. The "Natural Theology," though laſt

in

in the order of publication is intended by its excellent author as the firſt link in the chain of reaſoning, upon which is to reſt his ſyſtem of natural and revealed religion.

It is not our intention to follow Mr. B. in the various reflections which are interſperſed through the two firſt parts of his work; it will be ſufficient if we apprize the reader that they are in general appoſite, intereſting, manly, and ſerious. They are calculated to awaken in the thoughtful breaſt, ſentiments of piety towards God, and of beneficence towards man. The title of "Rural Philoſophy," is not, perhaps, ſo appropriate to theſe parts of the volume as it is to the next, which treats of the happineſs which ariſes from the *independence*, the *agriculture*, and the *amuſements* of a country life. Deſirous, however, of ſtating facts as they really are, and, with the frankneſs of a true philoſopher, to deſcribe the diſadvantages as well as the happineſs reſulting from each courſe of life, Mr. B., as a check to the pleaſures which a vivid imagination would anticipate from the purſuits of agriculture, and which have been ſo celebrated by poets and philoſophers, obſerves:

"There is ſcarce, perhaps, any condition of life which is attended with more anxiety than that of a common farmer: to him a bad year is a ſerious calamity; he is anxious to lay in happily his ſeed; he is then anxious for ſeaſons favourable to its growth; and, after his fields are become ripe for the harveſt, almoſt every cloud that flies over his head is an object of apprehenſion. Such high encomiums, therefore, can never be applicable, except in the caſe of a country gentleman who is not obliged to live on the fruits of his own induſtry, by whom a barren year is not felt, and who retains no more of his grounds in his own hands than may ſerve to his convenience or amuſement. And even here, the happineſs is found often to exiſt merely in contemplation. It was ſome ſuch form of life which appears to have ſmitten the imagination of Cowley; and what was the conſequence? When he came at length to take poſſeſſion of his elyſium, he met with ſo rude a reception, that others, who indulge themſelves in a like proſpect, may learn thence to moderate their expectations. "The firſt night," ſays he, in a letter to Dr. Sprat, "that I came hither, I caught ſo great a cold, with a defluxion of rheum, as made me keep my chamber ten days; and, two after, had ſuch a bruiſe on my ribs with a fall, that I am yet unable to move or turn myſelf in my bed. This is my perſonal fortune here to begin with. And, beſides, I can get no money from my tenants, and have my meadows eaten up every night by cattle put in by my neighbours. What this ſignifies, or may come to in time, God knows; if it be ominous, it can end in nothing leſs than hanging." Two years afterwards, he died; and thus terminated his plan of rural felicity."

From

From the advantages ariſing from a country life, our author proceeds to deſcribe the pleaſures of a *literary*, and a *devotional retirement:* and then he undertakes to anſwer the objections uſually made to a life of retirement, as deſtroying or diminiſhing uſefulneſs. Here he aſſumes it as an incontrovertible axiom that in human affairs, there is a mixed character which often makes it doubtful whether the good or the evil predominates, and that this character is alſo diſcernible in occupations which relate to the intellectual part of our nature. As a ſpecimen, he refers to the buſineſs of a bookſeller, which he thinks it very difficult to conduct with ſo much circumſpection as that the balance ſhall turn in favour of truth and virtue. "Among the numerous volumes," ſays Mr. B. "which are now in ordinary circulation, there is a large proportion which deſerves to be branded with infamy, many of them powerfully tending to promote lewdneſs, diſſipation, and public diſorder, and many others no leſs ſubſervient to the cauſe of infidelity and profaneneſs." Surely in this deſcription there is much of exaggeration. In this great city, we are ſatisfied there is not one reſpectable bookſeller who would favour the circulation of any of the books that merit the character here given. Let Mr. B. appeal to his own publiſher, let him demand of him, whether the ſhelves of his warehouſe "groan under loads of error and impiety, the incentives of vice, and the pleas of anarchy?" And he would certainly, with becoming indignation, reply in the negative. The Society for the ſuppreſſion of vice could better have informed Mr. Bates. The picture they have drawn, ſhocking as it is, is not taken from general life; but from characters who ſkulk in darkneſs, who diſſeminate their poiſon under cover of falſe pretences, who delude the unwary youth from the path of virtue and rectitude by means the moſt baſe and artful that can well be deviſed. Books, ſuch as Mr. B. has deſcribed, are not only never exhibited in any reſpectable bookſeller's ſhop, but can never be had there upon any terms.

From the bookſeller Mr. B. turns to the profeſſions of law and phyſic, and to other deſcriptions of men, who, without any particular profeſſion, act a conſiderable part in ſociety; ſuch as the *founders of families* who have, by their induſtry, raiſed themſelves to a ſtate of opulence:—the promoters of *charitable inſtitutions*:—and the *patrons of genius*. He then proceeds to point out by what methods a retired life may be made a uſeful one.

Mr. B. next conſiders the utility of monaſteries; and having well weighed the queſtion, he declares it to be his perſuaſion that the monaſtic ſyſtem has, upon the whole, been

been detrimental to religion, as well as to the preſent intereſts of mankind; he is, however, inclined to admit that the zeal of its oppoſers carried them to ſome exceſs. And ſuch, ſays he, was the opinion of Archbiſhop Leighton, "who thought that the great error of the Reformation was, that more *religious* houſes, and of the monaſtic courſe of life, free from the entanglements of vows and other mixtures, were not preſerved; ſo that the Proteſtant churches had neither places of education, nor retreat for men of mortified tempers." Hence our author takes an opportunity of recommending eſtabliſhments for the education and protection of young women, who are unprovided; where they might enjoy at leaſt a temporary refuge, and be inſtructed in the principles of religion, and in all ſuch uſeful and domeſtic arts, as might prepare and qualify thoſe who were inclined to return into the world for a laudable diſcharge of the duties of life. He alſo refers with approbation to ſome eſtabliſhments of this kind, and which, we imagine, are thoſe conducted by the Moravians in different parts of the kingdom.

ART. LXXXII. *The Year of Sorrow. Written in the Spring of* 1803. *By W. R. Spencer.* 4to. pp. 22. Price 5*s.* Cadell and Davies, London. 1804.

DEEPLY affected by the loſs of ſeveral of his relatives and friends who died early in the laſt year, Mr. Spencer, in the exordium of his poem, thus apoſtrophizes that portion of time, under the denomination of the "Year of Sorrow."

"Tear from thy guilty brow that vernal wreath;
Chaſe from thy train thoſe wanton airs which breathe
Of joy, and love, and life! let nought appear
To gratulate thy courſe, diſaſtrous year.
Away with all the ſeaſon's gaudy trim;
Cold be thy zephyrs, and thy ſuns be dim!
Vain is the curſe! the laughing Hours, who draw
Thy car, have heard th' irrevocable law;
The world has felt thy renovating rays;
All nature jubilant reſounds thy praiſe;
Creation lifts to thee her grateful voice,
By Spring's brief charter licenſed to rejoice:
And, as thy genial ſteps progreſſive move,
The lifeleſs all revive, and all the living love.
Theſe are thy works of grace!—thy works of woe,
Man, only man, is privileged to know:

Man,

Man, only man, creation's lord confeſs'd,
Amidſt his happy realm remains unbleſs'd.
On the bright earth, his flower-embroider'd throne,
Th' Imperial Mourner ſighs and weeps alone!
Sad Year! whilſt yet I hold one ſocial joy,
Suſpend thy dire commiſſion to deſtroy;
My heart, ſo late of many joys poſſeſs'd,
Laments for many loſt, and trembles for the reſt."

He then proceeds to celebrate the characteriſtic virtues of the ſubjects of his griefs, ſucceſſively deploring the unexpected fate of the Counteſs Dowager of Jeniſon Walworth, Mrs. Spencer's mother; of John Dunnage, eſq.; of the honourable Mrs. Ellis, daughter of the late Lord Hervey; of Mrs. Greville, ſiſter of the late Sir Bellingham Graham; of Aglaie de Polignac; of Sir William Hamilton; and of the amiable Lady Harriet Hamilton, eldeſt daughter to the Marquis of Abercorn.

We ſhall ſelect as a further ſpecimen of Mr. Spencer's poetical powers, his tribute of affection to the memory of Mr. Dunnage.

" Nor ſhall the mournful chronicle forget
One who with honeſt truth my friendſhip met*.
To him farewel! Thy morning clouds were paſt,
And all thy days ſeem'd bright'ning to the laſt.
Youth was thy ſeaſon of diſtreſs and tears,
But pleaſure met thee in the vale of years;—
Scarce in the vale ere all thy ſand was run,
And thy life ended when thy joys begun.
To thee farewel:—and oh! when ſummer leads
To Cambria's woodland rocks and ſtreamy meads,
Each ſcene of nature's pageantry review'd,
Each ſcheme of ſocial happineſs renew'd;
Each rural day, each feſtive night ſhall be
A dear, a long remembrancer of thee!
O, think not fruitleſs are the griefs which rend
The heart of friendſhip o'er a buried friend!—
Are they not vouchers of diſtinguiſh'd days,
Of active virtues, and decided praiſe?
The man, when ſummon'd to the realms of death,
Who unlamented yields his uſeleſs breath,
Tho' no foul crimes done in his mortal ſtate
The fearful hour of retribution wait,
Yet long in cold obſtruction dark he lies,
Unwept on earth, unwelcom'd in the ſkies;
Whilſt every tear o'er friendſhip's aſhes pour'd,
Blots out ſome frailty from the dread record,
And every ſigh breath'd on the funeral ſod
Wafts the lov'd ſpirit nearer to his God.

* John Dunnage, eſq.

Mr.

Mr. S.'s verſification is eaſy and elegant, and his ſtyle is, in the main, chaſte and correct. He has, however, retained ſome faulty lines, which ought to have been ſubmitted to the operation either of the file or of the pruning knife. What, for inſtance, can be more flat and proſaic than,

"The prime alone thy murderous ſcythe could ſuit."

We muſt enter our proteſt againſt the innovation which Mr. S. makes in the Engliſh language, in the introduction of a new and uncouth verb, when he ſings of

"The demon rage which *uproar'd* Europe's peace."

In his eulogium on what he inelegantly denominates the "claſſic *ware*" of Wedgwood, he alſo appears to us to ſink far below the general level of his poetic flight. The correction of theſe, and of one or two other paſſages, would have rendered Mr. S.'s poem "*totus teres atque rotundus.*" In a lengthened compoſition they might have been excuſed; but in a poem ſo brief as the "Year of Sorrow," the public reaſonably expect to find the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs, and the higheſt poliſh of diction.

ART. LXXXIII. *An Account of the Aſtronomical Diſcoveries of Kepler: including an Hiſtorical Review of the Syſtems which had ſucceſſively prevailed before his Time. By Robert Small, D. D.* 8vo. pp. 367. price 7 *s.* 6 *d.* Mawman, 1804.

"THE intention of this publication is to give a more full and particular account of Kepler's diſcoveries than can be found in the uſual ſyſtems, or the general hiſtories of aſtronomy, and to extract the account from his own inveſtigations, which are chiefly to be found in his commentary on the motions of Mars." Such is the author's reaſons for introducing to the public the work before us; and his motives will be deemed laudable; and by all lovers of mathematical ſcience Dr. Small's labours will be properly appreciated.

It is well known, that to Kepler we are indebted for the firſt diſcovery of the great laws of the planetary motions, viz. that the planets deſcribe areas that are proportional to the times;—that they move in elliptical orbits, having the ſun in one of the foci;—and that the ſquares of their periodic times are proportional to the cubes of their mean diſtances from the ſun. Theſe indeed have been long known by the name of Kepler's laws; and of courſe, the great man by whom they were diſcovered ſtands at the head of that ſyſtem of aſtronomy, which, by almoſt every mathematician, is deemed the true one.

A brief

A brief account of what Kepler did is to be found in almoſt all the introductions to this branch of ſcience. In Mr. Maclaurin's work on the ſubject, which is deſervedly held in the higheſt eſtimation, we have a chapter almoſt wholly devoted to Kepler. Hence it ſhould ſeem that many of his diſcoveries reſulted from obſervations made by Tycho Brahe, with whom he lived in habits of intimacy. Kepler, in the early part of life, was too much attached to theory, and had a paſſion for finding analogies in nature. He invented reaſons why there muſt be ſix, and only ſix, planetary bodies. To defend this and other notions which ſtand upon an equally untenable foundation, he applied himſelf diligently to obſervations on the motions of the heavenly bodies: by theſe he was led firſt to ſee in what former aſtronomers had erred, and in endeavouring to avoid error he eventually arrived at the truth.

Dr. Small, anxious to give a connected view of all that Kepler did in the ſcience of aſtronomy, has thought it neceſſary to prefix an account of the more ancient aſtronomical theories, and of the principal phenomena which they were ſuppoſed to explain. Accordingly, the firſt four chapters are devoted to the ſyſtems which had been feigned by ſpeculative men in ancient times; to the ſyſtems of Ptolemy, Copernicus, and Tycho Brahe. The next chapter is intitled, "Of the Preparations to Kepler's Diſcoveries, and of his original Intentions." In this we have a ſhort ſketch of the aſtronomer's life, who was born in 1571 in the dutchy of Wirtemburg, and, by favour of the prince, was ſent for education to Tubingen: before, however, he had completed his twentieth year, he was ſelected to fill the vacant aſtronomical chair at Gratz in Stiria, an office which he accepted with conſiderable reluctance, but the duties of which he performed with aſſiduity and zeal. It is not, however, our intention to follow this great man through the various ſteps of his life. Theſe Dr. Small has traced with accuracy; and has ſhewn not only how he was originally led to fix upon aſtronomy as the prime purſuit of his life, but how one diſcovery led to the others which ſucceeded. He has traced the opening of his mind, and has given the ſeveral geometrical problems and demonſtrations which he formed for the purpoſe of explaining the phenomena of nature.

The contents of this volume will not admit of analyſis: thoſe parts which relate almoſt wholly to Kepler, are accounts of his *planetary* theory;—of his *ſolar* theory; and of the theory of Mars. As theſe are chiefly taken from his work intitled, "New Aſtronomy; or Celeſtial Phyſics, in Commentaries on the planet Mars:" and as the reaſoning in general depends on figures

figures which accompany the volume, it is difficult to select a part which shall at once do justice to the talents of the author, and interest the reader who has not access to Dr. Small's performance. The section which refers to Kepler's third law is perhaps the most appropriate in the whole book for the purpose of being extracted.

"Another discovery made by Kepler, of equal importance, though not distinguished by the same steady and scrupulous prosecution of principles through their various consequences, which it indeed precluded, but produced chiefly by his extraordinary propensity to trace analogies, was his famous law concerning the mutual relation between the distances of the planets from the sun, and the periods of their revolution. He had determined, as we have seen, by various methods, the distances of every planet from the sun: that the distance of Jupiter, for example, is about five times, and of Saturn more than nine times, greater than the distance of the earth from the sun. But he found also, that the ratios of the times, in which the planetary revolutions were performed, were by no means the same with those of the distances; for the time of the revolution of the earth is but a twelfth part of the time of Jupiter's revolution, and but a thirtieth part of that of Saturn's revolution: and as he had considered the Copernican arrangement of the planets to be defective and unsatisfactory, while no known relation subsisted between those distances and times, the discovery of this relation became to him an object of the greatest interest, and, indeed, of restless curiosity. His trials for this purpose were various and repeated: he first employed himself in comparing the ratios of the simple distances, or times, with those of the regular solids in geometry, and with the divisions of musical chords; it next occurred to him, on the 8th of March 1618, that, instead of comparing together the simple distances and times, he should compare the number expressing their similar powers, such as their squares, or their cubes, &c.; and, lastly, he made the very comparison on which his discovery was founded, between the squares of the times and the cubes of the distances; but through some error of calculation, no common relation was found between them. Finding it impossible, however, to banish the subject from his thoughts, he tells us that, on the 8th of the following May, he resumed the last of these comparisons, and, by repeating his calculations with greater care, found, with the highest delight and even astonishment, that the ratio of the squares of the periodical times of any two planets was constantly and invariably the same with the ratio of the cubes of the greater axes of their orbits, or of their mean distances from the sun. The mean distance, for example, of the earth from the sun to that of Jupiter from the sun, is as 1 to 5. 2.; and the time of a sidereal revolution of the earth to the time of Jupiter's sidereal revolution, as 365 d. 6 h. 9′ 11″ 2. to 4332 d. 8 h. 51′ 25″ 6. Now, the number which expresses how often the square of the time of Jupiter's revolution contains that of the revolution of the earth, is 140.6874.; and this number also ex-

presses

preſſes, with equal exactneſs, how often the cube of Jupiter's diſtance contains the cube of the diſtance of the earth. This celebrated law received the moſt perfect confirmation on the diſcovery of the various ſecondary planets of the ſyſtem; for theſe were all found to be ſubjected to it in their revolutions round their reſpective primaries; and Newton has demonſtrated, that it is the neceſſary and univerſal law of all bodies revolving round a centre, and gravitating towards it in the inverſe ratio of the ſquares of their diſtances from it.

After all that we have ſaid on Dr. Small's work, it will, we apprehend, be thought too long by thoſe who are deſirous of ſtudying the Newtonian ſyſtem of the world. A general knowledge of this ſubject may be had at an eaſier rate in Maclaurin's "Account," to which we have already alluded; and thoſe who have leiſure and inclination to inveſtigate the ſubject from its ſource, will, perhaps, rather chooſe to apply to Kepler's own account than to any abridgment of it.

We have in a few inſtances obſerved trifling errors which are probably imputable to the preſs; as in p. 281, *falius* is put for *falices*.

Art. LXXXIV. *Practical Obſervations on the Treatment of Strictures in the Urethra, and in the Œſophagus. By Everard Home, Eſq. F. R. S. Surgeon to St. George's Hoſpital.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 424; price 7 *s.* Nicol. London. 1803.

THE application of bougies, either ſimple, or containing a portion of cauſtic ſubſtance, for the purpoſe of removing obſtructions of the urethra, is by no means to be regarded as a modern invention. Andrew Lacuna, a Spaniſh phyſician, appears to have been the firſt who has given an exact account of this method of treatment in a work written in 1551, intitled "Methodus cognoſcendi, extirpandique in veſicæ collo carunculas." He does not, however, claim it as his own diſcovery, but acknowledges that he had learnt it from a certain perſon, called Philip Luſitanus.

He directs that a wax candle, of ſuch a ſize as can be eaſily introduced, ſhould be paſſed into the urethra, and be ſuffered to remain a little time in the canal, that it may receive the impreſſion of the ſtricture, in order to aſcertain the ſituation of the obſtruction, and the part of the bougie which ought to be imbued with the cathartic unguent. About the ſame period, likewiſe, Alexander Trajanus Petronius, a ſurgeon of Caſtile, employed bougies in which red precipitate, burnt alum, or ſome of the concentrated acids, formed a part of

their compoſition. This method of treatment was generally known and practiſed during almoſt two centuries, by ſome of the ableſt ſurgeons in Europe. Among the more eminent of thoſe who ſanctioned this practice, were Ambroſe Paré and Dionis, in France, and the illuſtrious father of ſurgery in England, Richard Wiſeman.

During this period, however, many practitioners rejected theſe more violent methods, and employed bougies made of wax, with which they previouſly examined the ſtate of the urethra; and having by meaſurement aſcertained the part where the diſeaſe exiſted, they were enabled to direct their application with greater preciſion, which they effected, either by the immediate introduction of a ſmaller bougie, armed with ſome deſiccative ſubſtance, or elſe by conveying it to the affected part by means of a canula, in order to avoid irritating the ſound part of the canal.

The uſe of cauſtic, for the removal of obſtructions in the urethra, was, however, found on various occaſions, and, when applied with the utmoſt caution, to be productive of conſiderable miſchief: accordingly we find, about the middle of the 17th century, this practice ſtrongly reprobated by Savoiard, in a work intitled "Nouveau Recueil d'Obſervat. Chirurg." This practice was likewiſe diſcountenanced by Le Dran and Aſtruc as unmanageable and dangerous; and they thought it ſufficient to adviſe bougies either made of catgut, or thoſe in which the more irritating ingredients were excluded. Our countryman Sharpe, whoſe excellence as a ſurgeon has been no leſs diſtinguiſhed than his elegance as a writer, obſerves, that this practice was altogether condemned and rejected in his time, on account of the difficulty and almoſt impoſſibility of directing theſe applications to the morbid part, and to that only, beſide the violent pain and dangerous effects which they generally occaſioned. Yet, notwithſtanding the diſcredit into which this mode of treatment had fallen, it was revived by the late Mr. John Hunter, and has been purſued by many ſurgeons of eminence ſince his time. We confeſs we think it not a little ſtrange that Mr. Hunter (whether from ignorance, or contempt for the labours of his predeceſſors, we preſume not to determine) ſhould have offered no reaſons for departing from the beſt and ableſt authorities, nor any arguments for removing the objections which had been made againſt this mode of treatment. The oppoſition, however, which it has encountered ſince its revival to the preſent period by a large proportion of practitioners, has tended greatly to retard its progreſs, and to obſtruct the introduction of it into general practice. The mode of applying the cauſtic, adopted by Mr. Hunter,

Hunter, has been materially improved, and much more extenſively employed, by his pupil Mr. Home, who, in a work publiſhed in 1797, entitled "Practical Obſervations on the "Treatment of Strictures of the Urethra," has given a full and detailed hiſtory of his practice in diſeaſes of the urinary canal. In this volume Mr. Home endeavours, by a modification of his practice, to obviate many of the difficulties to which it appeared liable, and to give additional ſupport to that method of treatment which Mr. Hunter had adopted. In the firſt volume Mr. Home has confined his obſervations to the more common caſes of ſtricture, and the mode of treating them: in the volume before us he has proſecuted the ſubject further, by explaining ſeveral varieties in the progreſs of the diſeaſe, enumerating new ſymptoms, and taking notice of ſuch complications as have come to his knowledge ſince the firſt volume was publiſhed. To which are added ſome remarks on ſtrictures of the œſophagus and rectum. The firſt volume is of a date too remote to fall, conſiſtently, within the limits of our plan; we have contented ourſelves, therefore, with the mention of it, reſerving our obſervations for the volume now before us. Before we proceed to a particular analyſis of this volume, it may not be improper to lay before the reader ſome obſervations of the plan of arrangement which Mr. Home has adopted in the proſecution of his ſubject. In ſeveral inſtances anomalous circumſtances, which we conceive might have been placed under one common head, are ſwelled out into matters of the greateſt magnitude, and become the heads of diſtinct chapters.

By this ſeparation of diſtinct facts from each other the general effect of aſſemblage is loſt, and we meet with confuſion inſtead of a luminous order. For the correctneſs of theſe remarks we refer to chapters 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th. But we proceed to an examination of the particular chapters and ſections.

Chap. 1ſt.—General Obſervations. In inveſtigating this diſeaſe, Mr. Home has been enabled, from his extenſive experience, to aſcertain that a variety of conſtitutional affections are occaſionally produced by it. The moſt frequent of theſe is a regular feveriſh paroxyſm, reſembling that of intermittent fever; the next in point of frequency is a ſtate of feveriſh indiſpoſition; the others are, general nervous irritation, irritation of the ſtomach, ſciatica, epilepſy, eryſipelas, inflammation of the tonſils, and throat, and eruptions. Mr. Home obſerves, that patients are either liable to theſe while labouring under that diſeaſe, or they may be brought on by the application of the armed bougie; and that where theſe effects are

produced by the latter, it will be found that they have been met with at a former period in the ſame patient; and, laſtly, that after the removal of the ſtricture, the ſymptoms diſappear, although the patient had been liable to them for a number of years. Mr. Home obſerves, that theſe facts ſhow ſufficiently the variety of effects which can and do ariſe from an irritation upon ſo ſmall a part of that canal, and this ſometimes even where there is no ſenſation in the part, and the patient is himſelf unconſcious of its being in a diſeaſed ſtate. We do not perceive, however, that this latter part of our author's inference is founded upon any facts contained in this volume; and it would require more than our uſual ſhare of confidence to take for granted an aſſertion unſupported either by proof or analogy. Mr. Home further remarks, that the conſtitutional affections which are occaſionally produced do not yield to the modes of treatment by which they have been removed when ariſing from other cauſes. In conſidering the change of ſtructure which a ſtricture in the urethra undergoes, the author obſerves, p. 19, "I have even met with it, upon diſſection, as hard as cartilage; and, unfortunately, this diſpoſition for induration ſometimes extends itſelf into the ſurrounding parts. It alſo happens, that two ſtrictures, half an inch from each other, or at a ſtill greater diſtance, when much contracted, have the ſpace between them diminiſhed in its capacity; and the membrane of this intermediate portion of the canal is rendered thicker than the reſt of the urethra; ſo that, with reſpect to its removal, it may be conſidered as one continued ſtricture. The mode of treating ſuch caſes by cauſtic, which has been by many conſidered too violent, is often found in practice much too mild to ſecure ſucceſs." The remaining part of this chapter is occupied with ſome concluſions drawn from the length of time in which this mode of treatment has been adopted, reſpecting the conſequences which are produced by and the permanency of its effects. The author admits that in many, very many caſes, there has been a return of the complaint, but that it has ariſen in theſe caſes either from the patient having contracted a freſh gonorrhea, from uſing injections for its cure, or from an attack of the gout; and in ſome inſtances of this laſt affection the recurrence of the diſeaſe has rendered the removal of the obſtruction impracticable.

Chap. 2d. Entitled "Affections of the Urethra," which have been miſtaken for ſtrictures, and treated as ſuch, comprehends four ſections; the firſt of theſe includes irritations in the urethra, produced by different ſubſtances taken into the ſtomach, of which the author enumerates ginger, burgundy, and ſmall beer;

beer; the second, irritation in the urethra, brought on from piles; the third, temporary strictures during the inflammatory stage of gonorrhea; the fourth, irritations in the urethra, in consequence of inflammation of the internal membrane of the bladder. With respect to the second article, we must beg leave to wave our assent until a more extensive experience shall have enabled Mr. Home to point out particularly the circumstances upon which he qualifies his assertion. Hæmorrhoidal affections are so frequent, that if any connection had naturally existed between the two diseases, this circumstance must have been too obvious to have been so long passed over in silence. Where the piles are in an inflamed state, we can readily believe that this may, in some instances, extend to the urethra, producing the disease in question: but, independent of this, we see no reasonable grounds for believing, with Mr. Home, that the mere co-existence of the two diseases necessarily implies any natural dependence on each other.

The case which Mr. Home has related in his 4th Section claims the attention of every practitioner. It appears, however, to have been an ulcerated, and not an inflamed state of the internal membrane of the bladder. Had, therefore, the title of this Section been accurately expressed, it ought to have been, Irritations in the Urethra, in consequence of Ulceration of the Internal Membrane of the Bladder.

Chap. 3d. Strictures which require an unusual number of applications of the armed bougie for their removal.

In considering the alterations which strictures of the urethra undergo from long continuance, both in their structure and sensibility, Mr. Home is led to make some observations on the effect which this change produces in other parts of the canal. He observes that in all these cases there are consequent strictures; that whatever irritates or relieves the newly-formed stricture produces similar effects upon the original one. The following observations form an important part of this chapter. P. 56, "Where the second stricture has become ligamentous, and the first is still harder than ligament, that portion of the urethra which lies between them has lost its natural structure, and is more or less in a diseased and thickened state, requiring the use of the caustic through its whole extent, to widen the canal, and admit of the bougie arriving at the original stricture." P. 58. In such cases, when the original is destroyed, it is often impossible to get a bougie into the bladder. There is so much irregularity, that, although there is a passage, the bougie cannot be made to follow it." "It becomes therefore necessary from time to time, in the progress of the cure, to make use of a curved silver catheter, to ascertain whether the

urethra is really pervious or not; and when that inſtrument can be paſſed, by continuing its uſe, the bladder is relieved, and the thickening of the urethra ſubſides." Theſe ſeveral circumſtances are illuſtrated by caſes, the 2d of which points out likewiſe the great reſemblance which ſtrictures of the urethra in warm climates bear to thoſe of gonorrhea.

The extent to which Mr. Home has carried the uſe of the cauſtic bougie may be judged of from the following ſtatement. In caſe 3d the cauſtic was applied 187 times in the courſe of 18 months and a half; and Mr. Home remarks, "although the proceſs of the cure was ſo extremely tedious, when once it was completed the parts ſeemed to be in no degree injured by the frequency of the applications, nor were they longer in recovering themſelves than where the cure has been effected in a much ſhorter time." In the 5th caſe the cauſtic had been applied in the courſe of ſix years 486 times.

Chap. 4th. The effects of long continuance of ſtricture in the urethra upon the bladder. In further conſidering the effects which are produced in other parts of the body from the long continuance of ſtrictures in the urethra, the author has met with ſome caſes in which a diſeaſed ſtate of the internal membrane of the bladder has appeared to be a conſequence.—This ſubject occupies the 1ſt Section, and is illuſtrated with caſes, the reſult of which will be found highly intereſting.—From a conſideration, however, of caſe 3d, we muſt acknowledge ourſelves ignorant of the peculiar circumſtances in which it differs from thoſe already related. And ſo far from agreeing with Mr. Home that this diary, which occupies more than one fourth part of the whole volume, may be of the great utility which he ſuppoſes, (not to dwell upon the tireſome repetitions and inſignificant metaphors which embelliſh the dialogue of Mr. Home and his patient) we are of opinion that a compendious abridgment of it, compriſed within a very few pages, would have contained all that was neceſſary for practical purpoſes.

Sect. 2d. Ulceration of the internal membrane of the bladder, attended with hæmorrhage.

Sect. 3d. Communication of the bladder with the rectum. The circumſtances of the caſe which Mr. Home has related, incline us to doubt whether the injury noticed under this Section ought to be regarded as the effect of ſtricture; but we think Mr. Home not a little reprehenſible in delivering, with a degree of confidence and certainty, an opinion which, if admitted at all, muſt be acknowledged as highly conjectural. On the ſubject of the 4th Section, which contains an account of a rupture of the bladder, attended with ſome unuſual circumſtances,

cumſtances, Mr. Home regards, as well the diſeaſes mentioned in the two former Sections, "as an ulcer of the bladder, producing effects according to the parts deſtroyed by the ulcer." This mode of explanation is not more ſatisfactory than that which is offered in the preceding Section; ſince in the greater number of caſes on record it will be found that the rupture of the bladder has ariſen from a gangrene of ſome part of that viſcus. Mr. Home, with a ſort of contemptuous ſneer, which betrays no ſlight ſhare of vanity, ſays, p. 236, "A rupture of the bladder is often talked of, and the way in which it is ſuppoſed to take place I believe rarely, if ever, happens." Does Mr. Home mean to aſſert that a rupture of the bladder is a circumſtance not generally underſtood; or if ſo, that the manner in which it takes place has not been accurately deſcribed? or, that the notions commonly entertained on this ſubject are chimerical, and not founded on actual examination, becauſe the "*ſuppoſed*" circumſtances of the caſes on record do not coincide with that related by Mr. Home? Surely, had Mr. Home ever taken the pains to conſult Bonetus, Lieutand, Roonhuyſen, the caſes related in the Medical Obſervations, or the Medical Communications, &c. he would not have aſſumed a tone ſo little reſpectful to men of no leſs induſtry and eminence than himſelf. We do not mean to undervalue the caſe which Mr. Home has related, the examination of which appears to have been conducted with great accuracy; and we are ſorry that the limits within which we are confined do not permit us to preſent our readers with a tranſcript of it.

Chap. 5th. Strictures brought on by Onaniſm. In this and the two ſubſequent chapters the author has conſidered ſome peculiarities belonging to ſtrictures of the urethra, which appear to depend on the cauſes enumerated under theſe different heads. Though we were not diſpoſed to reſiſt any erroneous opinions of the author which were not immediately connected with his views, the following paſſage ought not, we think, to be paſſed over in ſilence. In ſpeaking of the prevalence of this vice before the period at which the parts have acquired their full powers, ſo as to fit them for the performance of their functions, Mr. Home obſerves, p. 245, "At this time an occaſional attempt to perform the complete act might be productive of *benefit*, and if it were only repeated at certain intervals might do no material miſchief." Mr. Home has left his readers entirely ignorant upon what facts or obſervations this very extraordinary aſſertion is founded: but whatever may be thought of his hypotheſis we cannot commend his diſcretion

in publiſhing an opinion, the evident and ſole tendency of which is to encourage a pernicious and unnatural vice.

The 8th *Chapter* is written with a view to point out certain diſeaſes which are occaſionally met with as the conſequences of ſtricture, without a knowledge of which circumſtance they would be likely to be miſtaken for original affections, of which Mr. Home enumerates the following: 1. Eryſipelas; 2. Sciatica; 3. An involuntary paſſing of the urine; 4. An enlargement of the teſticle; 5. Diſeaſed ſtate of the ſurface of the tongue. The author has met with but two inſtances of eryſipelas in conſequence of ſtricture. The caſe intended to illuſtrate the 4th Section exhibits a ſpecimen of Mr. Home's mode of reducing the thickened parts, after the ſtricture has been removed by the uſe of the catheter. In the 5th Section the author relates a ſingle caſe in point, which he conſiders as a proof of the "ſtrong ſympathetic connection," as he terms it, which exiſts between the ſtomach and urethra.—We cannot forbear expreſſing our ſurprize, that from one ſolitary inſtance, and that not quite free from ambiguity, the author ſhould have deduced a general concluſion: if ſuch modes of reaſoning were to be admitted as valid in ſurgery, or in any other ſcience, we ſhould have quickly as many axioms as facts.

Chap. 9th. Stricture in the urethra, accompanied with a ſtone in the kidney, which kept up ſymptoms of irritation in the bladder after the ſtricture was removed.

Chap. 10th. Strictures to which the cauſtic has been applied rendered more eaſily dilated by the common bougie. Mr. Home appears ſatisfied, that the only caſes in which the application of the cauſtic is rendered ineffectual or inadmiſſible are, thoſe in which the diſpoſition to paroxyſms of fever are ſo violent as to leave the conſtitution in too exhauſted a ſtate to admit of the mode of treatment being continued.

Chap. 11th. Falſe paſſages formed by the uſe of the cauſtic. To thoſe who are unaware of the difficulties attending the uſe of the armed bougie, this chapter will be highly intereſting, as it contains ſeveral new and uſeful precepts on the mode of conducting that operation.

Chap. 12th. Caſes in which ſuppreſſion of urine, in conſequence of ſtricture, has been ſo long continued as to require the operation of puncturing the bladder. The greater part of this chapter, the author acknowledges, has been publiſhed before in the Tranſactions of a Society for promoting Medical and Chirurgical Knowledge. The caſes, however, related in it, will, we are perſuaded, be found highly intereſting. They are circumſtantially and accurately deſcribed, and have furniſhed the

the author with the means of drawing certain conclusions from the two methods of operating. We cannot, however, avoid drawing one conclusion from these cases, as it regards the general mode of treatment which Mr. Home has adopted; and which he appears to have overlooked: it is this, that the four cases in which he performed the operation himself were cases of suppression of urine produced by the application of caustic. We are, therefore, of opinion, that the author will find it necessary to extend his Tenth Chapter to a variety of other cases beside those mentioned. Mr. Home observes, that in two cases where he had an opportunity of examining the parts after death, "that the trocar had passed obliquely upwards from the rectum into the bladder: it wounded the gut exactly two inches from the verge of the anus, and entered the bladder in the triangular space between the prostate gland and the openings of the two ureters." This space, which Mr. Home alludes to, includes within it the vasa differentia and the vesiculæ seminales; but we are not told at what relative point, with respect to these important parts, the perforation was made. The only space we know of in which the bladder can be perforated from the rectum with perfect impunity is, the triangular space between the vasa differentia and the reflexion of peritoneum. This space in the natural state, before any dissection has been employed, does not exceed in its greatest diameter two fingers breadth. Had Mr. Home given accurate directions how an operator may best avoid wounding the vesiculæ seminales, or penetrating the cavity of the abdomen, his instructions would have been of much more importance than those he has given us.

Chap. 13th. Of the treatment of strictures in the œsophagus. Mr. Home considers that part of the œsophagus immediately behind the cricoid cartilage as more liable to stricture than any other part of the canal. "In the œsophagus of a young person," Mr. Home observes, "there is a contraction at this part; which I believe has not been generally noticed." This last observation is by no means peculiar to Mr. Home; it was a remark first made by the late Dr. Hunter, and has been repeatedly confirmed by the observations of different anatomists since his time. One reason which has been unnoticed, and which perhaps explains not only why this part of the canal is narrower than the rest, but also why it becomes more liable to stricture is, that this is the precise point at which the inferior constrictor muscle of the pharynx terminates. We have purposely avoided entering into any contest with Mr. Home on the propriety of employing such terms as "œconomy of diseases," "translation of sensibility," "sympathy of parts;" terms which, to say the least

leaſt of them, are no leſs unintelligible, than deſtructive to the progreſs of ſcience. In the review of this volume it will perhaps appear, that we have been more ſolicitous to point out its defects than careful to diſplay its excellences. We are, however, ready to concede that Mr. Home has made many uſeful additions to the hiſtory of a diſeaſe not yet perfectly underſtood, and that this volume will be found to contain many rare and intereſting caſes; yet we feel it proper to aſſert, that the inferences and reaſoning which Mr. Home has in many places adopted, are not drawn from ſufficient premiſes; and in our opinion it is greatly inferior to the former volume both in the importance of the matter, and the manner in which it is executed.

ART. LXXXV. *Socrates and Jeſus compared. By Joſeph Prieſtley, LL.* D. F.R.S.* pp. 60. Johnſon. London: 1803.

ALTHOUGH we differ very widely from Dr. Prieſtley upon many queſtions of importance, and heartily diſapprove the intemperate zeal with which he purſued his favourite objects of civil and religious reform, yet we have ever conſidered him as a ſincere and judicious advocate for the Divine origin of the Goſpel. Whether a man correctly underſtands the meaning of the ſacred records, and properly appreciates the value of the information which they contain; or, whether he really believes them to be ſacred, and ſupports his belief by ſound and convincing arguments; are conſiderations which ſhould be kept entirely diſtinct by all who would examine the queſtion of the truth or falſehood of Chriſtianity with the candour and ſeriouſneſs anſwerable to its importance. One of theſe conſiderations applies ſolely to the controverſy between Chriſtians and Infidels. The arguments produced by the former ought, therefore, to be ſuch as all Chriſtians can admit to be valid. The other conſideration applies to diſcuſſions ariſing among Chriſtians themſelves; and every individual, who may be intereſted in ſuch inveſtigations, muſt produce the reaſons which his own judgment and conſcience approve. —Now, certainly, the firſt of theſe, as it embraces a wider compaſs, ſo is it of higher importance: inaſmuch as any

* This anomaly to the laws of orthography we frequently obſerve in title-pages, and ſhall now notice once for all. L. is the contraction for Lex in the ſingular, LL. for the plural; conſequently, Legum Doctor muſt be thus abbreviated, LL. D.

belief of Chriſtianity is preferable to the darkneſs and deluſion of infidelity; and, if the generality of mankind could be brought to acknowledge the authority of the Goſpel diſpenſation, we might then entertain a more reaſonable expectation that the ſubordinate points of controverſy among Chriſtians would be adjuſted.

However that may be, it is our bounden duty to give the writer before us his juſt portion of praiſe for the ability, courage, and perſeverance, with which he has ſtood forward in the defence of our common faith againſt the common enemy. Here, indeed, he has laboured with a zeal and induſtry worthy of the cauſe he has ſuſtained. Againſt Hume and Gibbon, againſt Paine and Volney, he has undauntedly thrown down the gauntlet of defiance. He has invited the Jews to an amicable diſcuſſion of the evidences of Chriſtianity: and, amidſt the wildeſt exceſſes of the French *ſoi-diſant* philoſophers, boldly expoſed their ignorance and reproved their impiety. In the preſent work*, his thoughts have been employed upon the ſame ſubject: and it is highly creditable to him that he has not ſuffered them to wander from the main intereſting queſtion before him. We do not recollect a ſingle expreſſion throughout theſe pages which the moſt orthodox Chriſtian would feel himſelf called upon to diſapprove.

The character of Socrates, the moſt eminent teacher of the idolatrous world, has, naturally enough, been the ſubject of compariſon with that of Jeſus Chriſt, both among Infidels and Chriſtians. The contraſt, as exhibited by Rouſſeau, is well known to be greatly in favour of our religion; and although Voltaire, if we rightly remember, affects in a part of his works to detract from the fortitude of our Redeemer at one particular moment of his unexampled ſufferings, yet he is elſewhere compelled by the force of truth to acknowledge the ſuperiority of Jeſus over Socrates. The preſent work exhibits the compariſon much more fully. It contains a ſimple, but accurate expoſition of facts; and, while the reader is in ge-

* This, perhaps, is the laſt of our author's literary performances; for, ſince we prepared this account for the preſs, we received an account of his death. When we heard the circumſtance, we could not but feel great pleaſure in reflecting that our attention had been given to a work which, both in its intention and execution, called for high commendation. Chriſtian charity is, indeed, far from requiring us to diſguiſe our opinions; but it certainly does enjoin us to approve and even point out whatſoever is excellent in thoſe from whom we differ, and to allow to their motives the ſame praiſe which we claim for our own.

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neral left to draw his own conclusions, its aim and object are to show the necessity and importance of Revelation, by the defects which are visible in the mode, the substance, and the consequences of Socrates' teaching.

The plan of this tract is extremely sensible, and arranged under the following heads. 1. Of the Polytheism and Idolatry of Socrates.—2. The Sentiments of Socrates concerning the Gods and their Providence.—3. Of the excellent Moral Character of Socrates.—4. The Imperfection of Socrates' Ideas concerning Piety and Virtue in general.—5. Of Socrates' Belief in a Future State.—6. Of the Dæmon of Socrates.—7. Of the Character and Teaching of Socrates compared with those of Jesus.—8. Of the different Objects of the Instructions of Socrates and of Jesus.—9. Inferences to be drawn from the Comparison of Socrates and Jesus.

In the execution of this design there is much judgment as well as fairness. The topics are well selected, and the language in which they are discussed is so clear, as to enable any reader of moderate capacity to perceive the drift and acknowledge the force of the argument. We do not, indeed, acquiesce in every part of the statement made by our author; and, in one instance, we are of opinion, that he has rather weakened than assisted his cause by the sentiments which he has espoused. This we shall notice hereafter.

The following observations under Sect. IV. are a specimen of the manner in which the question is treated.

"Just and sublime as were the sentiments that Socrates professed concerning the power and providence of the gods, and of the obligation that men are under to reverence and worship them, his ideas of the manner in which this was to be done were by no means such as might have been expected in consequence of them. According to him, all the duties that properly rank under the head of piety, are the observance of the religious rites of the countries in which men live. "The gods," he says, (p. 338*) "are not to "be honoured by every man as he pleases, but as the laws direct." This was agreeable to the answer received from Delphi, when inquiry was made concerning the manner in which men should please the gods; for the answer returned was, "by complying with the "institutions of our country." (p. 313.) After mentioning this, Socrates added, that "all states had decreed that the gods are to "be placated by sacrifices, according to the faculties of each of "them." (p. 314.)

"Now

* These references are to "Xenophon's Memorabilia and Apology; by B. Simpson, Oxford, A. D. 1749."

" Now, what the rites of the heathen religions were, thoſe of Athens by no means excepted, is well known. Little did they accord with any juſt ſentiments of what we now deem to be piety, i. e. a reverence for the perfections and providence of God; gratitude for his favours; ſubmiſſion to his will, in a ſtrict obedience to the moral precepts he has enjoined; and confidence in his protection and favour in conſequence of it. With theſe ſentiments, ſacrifices, and the other rites of the heathen religions, had no connection whatever. Rather, they were the occaſion and provocatives of licentiouſneſs, and lewdneſs, as muſt have been well known to Socrates himſelf.

The moral maxims of Socrates, independent of thoſe relating to religion, are admirable, eſpecially his ſaying, (p. 83,) that " there is no better way to true glory than to endeavour to be good rather than ſeem to be ſo." But his general rule concerning the nature of juſtice, in which he probably included virtue, in general, was that, " whatever is lawful," or agreeable to the laws " is juſt" (p. 321, 326); whereas, nothing can be more variable than the laws of particular ſtates, or more diſcordant with one another.

" With reſpect to the ſubjects of religion and morals in general, Socrates always profeſſed a greater regard to the laws than reaſon or good ſenſe will juſtify, though he might be induced to ſay more on this ſubject in conſequence of his being accuſed of being no friend to the popular religion, and of corrupting youth by attaching them to himſelf, to the neglect of their parents and others. And it is very poſſible that, in ſome of his inſtructions he had inculcated duties of a purer and higher kind than the inſtitutions of his country would encourage or authoriſe. Such, however, might be expected from the ſentiments he generally expreſſed." (p. 14.)

Dr. Prieſtley is certainly correct in repreſenting Socrates as having no fixed belief in a future ſtate. Is he equally accurate when he ſays, (p. 25,) that " the Jews were in the time of our Saviour firm believers in the doctrine of a reſurrection?" Surely the belief which prevailed in our Saviour's time was rather that of a ſect than a whole people, at leaſt the Sadducees and their adherents were very numerous.

The following remark, which has often occurred to us, is both true and important:

" Beſides, after all that Socrates advances in proof of a future ſtate, he ſeems to make it the peculiar privilege of thoſe who apply to philoſophy, who have in ſome degree abſtracted the purer mind from the groſs body, by intenſe meditations," (p. 83.) " This," he ſays, (p. 94) " was intended by the authors of the myſteries, when they ſaid that none beſides the initiated would live with the gods after death; for that by the initiated were meant thoſe who philoſophized in a right manner (ὀρθῶς), and that whether he had ſucceeded or not, it had been his endeavour through life to do ſo."

" According

"According to this the great mass of mankind have no more interest in a future state than brute animals. But the Gospel makes no difference in favour of philosophers, or any other class of men. According to this, "*All that are in the graves shall hear the voice of the Son of man,* (John v. 28.) *and shall come forth; they that have done good to the resurrection of life, and they that have done evil to the resurrection of condemnation. Then too* (Rev. xx. 15.) *the sea shall give up the dead that is in it, and every man shall be judged according to his works.*" (p. 25.)

The subject of the Seventh Section of this little tract is handled in a masterly manner, with the exception of one remark, where we think the learned writer has made an unnecessary concession.

"But independently of this superior *authority* with which Jesus always delivered himself, the *subjects* of his discourses and exhortations were far more serious and weighty than those of Socrates.—Indeed, some of those that are recorded by Xenophon are so exceedingly trifling, that we cannot help wondering that a writer of such judgment and good sense should have thought it worth his while to relate them. Some of those of Jesus are, no doubt, of much less importance than others; as when he advises persons how to place themselves at table where there are many guests of different ranks, &c.: and observations and advices of far less importance than even this are not unbecoming Socrates, Jesus, or any man in proper circumstances. For the gravest characters are not always speaking, as we say, *ex cathedra*. In the ordinary situations of human life, when nothing very serious is expected, but mere good humour and good sense, even innocent pleasantry is well received."

Now certainly the advice of Jesus was not, either in the instance adduced, or upon any other occasion, confined to any thing so trivial as the decorum of common life. In this case it was a grave and serious caution against pride; against a passion which, like many other defects of our nature, often betrays itself by little circumstances, and on occasions where a superficial observer would not remark it. Indeed we conceive this to be the characteristic excellence of Christ's preaching. By the deep and boundless insight which he possessed into the human heart, he traced all moral evils to their source, marked them in their most secret recesses, and pursued them through all the irregularities of human action. Hence he was enabled to caution his disciples against the the first appearance of sin, to check it in its advances to maturity, and prevent its growing into habit. Hence it was that he assisted them in gaining that knowledge, which is most difficult to be attained, but without which our infirmities must take deeper and deeper root, the knowledge of ourselves.

In

In the laſt ſection, the argument is ſummed up. But notwithſtanding that ſome points in favour of Revelation are ſtated both with force and preciſion, yet this part of the tract does not altogether adhere to the ſubject ſo much as the reader is led to expect. In a writer like Dr. Prieſtley, whoſe days were many, and whoſe ſorrows have been not a few, indulgence may and muſt be extended to a diminution of intellectual powers, whether in ſpirit of compoſition or in cloſeneſs of reaſoning. In making this alluſion to other works of the ſame author upon the ſame important ſubject, the evidences of the divine miſſion of Jeſus Chriſt, we deſire to be underſtood as expreſſing our opinion in the reſpectful words of Longinus—*γῆρας, διηγοῦμαι, γῆρας δ' ὅμως Ὁμήρου.*

We have referred to one part of the Doctor's argument, which, in our opinion, tends to undermine the ſtructure which he had reared with ſkill and with toil in favour of Revelation. This reſpects the dæmon of Socrates: in delivering his ſentiments upon this knotty point, he evidently leans to the belief of ſupernatural agency. The queſtion is treated pretty much at length, and the following paſſage contains the ſubſtance of his reaſoning.

After mentioning the dreams, "on which he put an uncommon conſtruction," our author obſerves, "This could not have been the caſe with reſpect to the hints that he received when he was awake, whether by the medium of a real voice, or in any other way."

"In no other reſpect does Socrates appear to have been an enthuſiaſt. On the contrary, he was a man of a calm and even temper, not diſtinguiſhed by any peculiarity of behaviour, or extravagance of any kind. And though he ſeems to have addreſſed himſelf to every perſon to whom he imagined that his advice would be uſeful, he was never charged with being impertinent ſo as to give offence to any: on the contrary, his addreſs was inſinuating and pleaſing; ſo that his hearers in general were delighted with his converſation, and this through the courſe of a long life.

"Since, then, he perſiſted in his account of theſe admonitions to the laſt, and in the moſt ſerious ſituation that a man could be in, and his veracity was never queſtioned, though I am far from forming any fixed opinion on a ſubject of ſo great obſcurity, I think it may admit of a doubt, whether they may not be ſuppoſed to have come, in whatever manner they were given, from God. I do not ſee any thing unworthy of the divine Being in his diſtinguiſhing this extraordinary man in this way. Being no *judge* (judges) of the propriety of the divine conduct, we muſt be determined in every caſe of this kind by the *evidence of facts*, according to the eſtabliſhed rules of eſtimating the value of teſtimony in general.

"Theſe admonitions are ſaid to have been proper to the occaſions on which they were delivered; ſo that leading to *good*, if they

they came from any ſuperior being, it muſt have been a wiſe and benevolent one. They would, therefore, tend to impreſs the mind of Socrates, and thoſe of his numerous diſciples and admirers, with the idea of the exiſtence of a Power ſuperior to man, though not in a manner ſo deciſive and convincing as the expreſs revelations that were made to the Hebrew prophets. But why it ſhould pleaſe God to diſtinguiſh any one man, or any particular nation, with his peculiar gifts, and in what degree he ſhould do this, is not for us to ſay. If we ſee good to reſult from it, we ought not to cavil or complain, but be ſatisfied and thankful." (p. 29.)

After peruſing this paſſage, our readers will not be ſurprized to hear that we have obſerved in the mind of Dr. Prieſtley, upon ſome other occaſions, a ſtrong tincture of credulity. That he has given way to it in this inſtance, ſo as to injure the effect of his very judicious reaſoning in other parts of this treatiſe, will appear from theſe obſervations. The avowed object of the publication is, to inſtitute a compariſon between unenlightened reaſon and Revelation. But, by admitting the poſſibility that Socrates acted under a divine impulſe, the queſtion turns upon different degrees of revelation, and not upon the difference between natural and revealed religion. Beſides, the *evidence of facts* here contended for, conſiſts in an impreſſion made upon the mind of an individual. If, however, ſuch an impreſſion be accounted ſufficient teſtimony, the rules, which have been ſo wiſely and pioufly laid down for aſcertaining the degree of evidence neceſſary to conſtitute a proof of divine interference, will become uſeleſs; and the ravings of enthuſiaſm will uſurp the place hitherto conſecrated to the ſoberneſs of truth. If the dæmon of Socrates be, for ſuch reaſons, aſcribed to the effects of heavenly influence, we can ſcarcely ſee for what reaſons Lord Herbert of Cherbury is to be denied the benefit of the ſign which he avers was granted to him. The latter may as fairly contend that the divine favour was vouchſafed to his labours in the cauſe of infidelity, as the former might be referred to as ſanctioning the principles and practices of idolatry.

Happily for the cauſe which he is endeavouring to ſupport, the arguments of Dr. Prieſtley are in this inſtance, and, ſo far as we have obſerved, in this inſtance only, very inconclufive; and, in ſpite of his opinion, we may ſtill rank the dæmon of Socrates among the effects of craft or illuſion; the one of which might eaſily originate, and the other may fairly be excuſed, in a Polytheiſt and Idolater.

ART. LXXXVI. *Popular Tales. By Maria Edgeworth; Author of "Practical Education;" &c.* 3 Vols. 12mo. pp. 1144. price 15*s.* Johnson. 1804.

IN the preface which introduces the present work we are informed that "the title of Popular Tales has been chosen, not as a presumptuous or premature claim to popularity, but from the wish that they may be current beyond the circles which are sometimes exclusively considered as *polite*."——"The art of printing," adds the author, "has opened to all classes of people various new channels of entertainment and information. Amongst the ancients, wisdom required austere manners, and a length of beard to command attention; but, in our days, instruction in the dress of innocent amusement is not denied admittance amongst the wise and good of all ranks. It is therefore hoped, that a succession of stories adapted to different ages, sexes, and situations, will not be rejected by the public, unless they offend against morality, tire by their sameness, or disgust by their imitation of other writers." On reading this passage, we could not forbear reflecting, how different might have been the fate of the following volumes had they issued from the press at the commencement of the eighteenth instead of the nineteenth century. To the epithet *popular* these tales might then have had unequivocal pretensions. The SUCCESSION OF STORIES, adapted to different ages, sexes, and situations, would have been secure of a cordial reception from the *polite* circle for which they were not designed, and of an equally cordial adoption from the class for which they obviously are intended; they would have been considered as manuals of prudence, and quoted as theorems of experience; the pictures of life which they exhibit would have been engraven on the imagination of youth; and the precepts of wisdom which they afford would have flowed, with oracular authority, from the lips of age:—but the marked graduations of rank, with the yet more marked graduations of intelligence, in this country, no longer exist. "*The art of printing has opened to all classes so many new channels of entertainment and information,*" that, with the exception of the humble and totally unlettered poor, it appears difficult to discover any branch of the community to whose *amusement* and instruction a series of tales can be *exclusively* devoted. We mean not to affirm that there no longer remains a line of demarcation between *popular* and *correct* taste, much less to deny that both the superior and inferior stations have relative duties essentially different; but we are persuaded that no precise *cast* (if we may use the expression) of sentiment, no

merely local delineation of character, can command the ſuffrage of any large proportion of the public. Science no longer ſteals with dim ambiguous light through "the *cloiſter's pale!*" ſacred to ſcholaſtic learning, and ſubject to ſcholaſtic bigotry. Society has aſſumed a new aſpect—neither literature nor property is held by feudal tenure—commerce ſpreads wide her golden chain, in whoſe imperceptible links are united all ranks of the community. Thoſe who conſider the univerſal circulation of newſpapers, and the active temper of the times, will be at no loſs to account for the literary ſpirit diffuſed through the middle orders, and for the taſte and cultivation which, ſuperficially at leaſt, have ſpread through the whole community. *Letters* continue to form the ſtudy of profeſſional men, whilſt to the national maſs reading is in the number of elegant and liberal amuſements. It is, therefore, neceſſary that he who would become a *popular* inſtructor, ſhould poſſeſs the popular art *to pleaſe*. To be uſeful, he muſt not merely be preceptive, but perſuaſive; *not only* ſhould his morality be found, but its vehicle alluring; ſuch as he would correct, he muſt conciliate; and, to thoſe for whom he offers the leſſons of wiſdom, he muſt appear undeſigning and unobtruſive: above all, if he have a favourite hypotheſis, a particular principle, or a particular claſs in view, he ſhould diſguiſe the rigidity of ſyſtem, and conceal the aſperity of remonſtrance; —in one word, he muſt intereſt to inſtruct, and, to intereſt, he ſhould exchange the magiſterial rod of wiſdom for that electric wand of fancy whoſe touch penetrates the ſoul.

In the Popular Tales before us the ſcenes, ſituations, and characters, are evidently drawn for the ſubordinate or ſecondary claſſes of what is commonly called middle life. Induſtry is always crowned with ſucceſs; prudence bleſſed with proſperity. Honeſty has its precious meed; and patience its golden recompenſe. We mean not to object to home-drawn ſcenes, or home-made incidents. We have the moſt unequivocal conviction that the ſimple annals of domeſtic life afford materials for fiction the moſt impreſſive to the mind and heart. In ſome of Miſs Edgeworth's former publications (the Parent's Aſſiſtant, and the Tales for Youth) we have had ample proofs of the verſatility of her talents; and our eyes and lips have borne teſtimony to her powers of pathos and humour. Yet ſkilful as is the texture of her Popular Tales, and admirable as are the principles which they illuſtrate, we ſtill apprehend that the plan is ill adapted to any claſs of Engliſh readers in the nineteenth century. We have advanced to an era, when from the rapid diſſemination of literary novelties, a faſtidiouſneſs (perhaps we ſhould ſay a ſickly delicacy of taſte) is pro-

duced, which demands ſpells more potent than can be adminiſtered through the denſe medium of œconomical tracts, or *didactic* ſtories, of which the moral end is always apparent, in which the uſeful application predominates over the fable, and, like marginal notes, draws the eye from the original text. By the almoſt uniform derivation of characters and ſituations from one order of life, the author has given to theſe Tales an air of famineſs and conſtraint which ſhackles her own invention, and ſometimes drags heavily on the expectation of her readers. The firſt of theſe ſeries is LAME JERVAS, which exhibits the intereſting progreſs of an unfriended youth from the extreme of penury and obſcurity, to eaſe, diſtinction, and affluence. "THE WILL" is enriched with a vein of humour, and evinces Miſs Edgeworth's accuſtomed diſcrimination of character. In "THE LIMERIC GLOVES" there is much well-directed raillery at the *national*, or rather *unnational*, prejudices againſt Iriſhmen, which ſtill operate on many ſubjects of this united empire. "OUT OF DEBT OUT OF DANGER" contains ſalutary precepts and awful examples. "ROSANNA," and "THE MANUFACTURERS," poſſeſs ſuperior merit. In the latter, ſome of the ſcenes are not unworthy of the comic Muſe. "THE CONTRAST" preſents patriarchal pictures of happineſs and ſimplicity, on which the heart repoſes with delight. The Tale of "TO-MORROW" is too protracted. We acknowledge we ſhould have been better pleaſed had the hero been permitted to redeem his character with his uncle Lowe. "THE GRATEFUL NEGRO" we read with an intereſt ſo intenſe as almoſt to be painful. The admirable Tale of "MURAD THE UNLUCKY" is in the happieſt ſtyle of grave humour. In theſe two charming Tales the author's pen was emancipated from the trammels of ſyſtem. It would be injuſtice to "THE GRATEFUL NEGRO" to introduce it in a mutilated form. The following extracts from Murad's narrative we tranſcribe for the amuſement of our readers:

"My father was a merchant of this city. The night before I was born, he dreamed that I came into the world with the head of a dog, and the tail of a dragon; and that, in haſte to conceal my deformity, he rolled me up in a piece of linen, which unluckily proved to be the Grand Seignior's turban; who, enraged at his inſolence in touching his turban, commanded that his head ſhould be ſtruck off.

"My father wakened before he loſt his head; but not before he had half loſt his wits, from the terror of his dream. Being a firm believer in predeſtination, he was perſuaded that I ſhould be the cauſe of ſome great evil to him; and he took an averſion to me even before I was born. He conſidered his dream as a warning,

ſent from above, and conſequently determined to avoid the ſight of me. He ſet out, the next morning, on a voyage to Aleppo.

" I was in my eighth year when my father returned from abroad. The year after he came home my brother Saladin was born, who was named Saladin, the Lucky, becauſe, the day he was born, a veſſel, freighted with rich merchandiſe for my father, arrived ſafely in port.

" When Saladin was about twenty, my father was taken dangerouſly ill; and, as he felt that he ſhould not recover, he ſent for my brother to the ſide of his bed, and, to his great ſurpriſe, informed him that the magnificence, in which we had lived, had exhauſted all his wealth; that his affairs were in the greateſt diſorder; for, having truſted to the hope of continual ſucceſs, he had embarked in projects beyond his powers.

" The ſequel was, he had nothing remaining, to leave to his children, but two large china vaſes, remarkable for their beauty, but ſtill more valuable on account of certain verſes inſcribed upon them in an unknown character, which were ſuppoſed to operate as a taliſman, or charm, in favour of their poſſeſſors.

" Both theſe vaſes my father bequeathed to my brother Saladin; declaring he could not venture to leave either of them to me, becauſe I was ſo unlucky that I ſhould inevitably break it. After his death, however, my brother Saladin, who was bleſſed with a generous temper, gave me my choice of the two vaſes; and endeavoured to raiſe my ſpirits by repeating, frequently, that he had no faith either in good fortune or ill fortune.

" I could not be of his opinion; though I felt and acknowledged his kindneſs, in trying to perſuade me out of my ſettled melancholy. I knew it was in vain for me to exert myſelf, becauſe I was ſure that, do what I would, I ſhould ſtill be Murad, the Unlucky. My brother, on the contrary, was no ways caſt down, even by the poverty in which my father left us: he ſaid he was ſure he ſhould find ſome means of maintaining himſelf, and ſo he did.

" On examining our china vaſes, he found in them a powder of a bright ſcarlet colour; and it occurred to him that it would make a fine dye. He tried it; and, after ſome trouble, it ſucceeded to admiration.

" During my father's life-time, my mother had been ſupplied with rich dreſſes, by one of the merchants who was employed by the ladies of the Grand Seignior's ſeraglio. My brother had done this merchant ſome trifling favours; and, upon application to him, he readily engaged to recommend the new ſcarlet dye. Indeed it was ſo beautiful that the moment it was ſeen it was preferred to every other colour. Saladin's ſhop was ſoon crowded with cuſtomers; and his winning manners, and pleaſant converſation, were almoſt as advantageous to him as his ſcarlet dye. On the contrary, I obſerved that the firſt glance at my melancholy countenance was ſufficient to diſguſt every one who ſaw me. I perceived this plainly; and it only confirmed me the more in my belief in my own evil deſtiny.

" It

"It happened one day that a lady, richly apparelled and attended by two female ſlaves, came to my brother's houſe, to make ſome purchaſes. He was out, and I alone was left to attend the ſhop. After ſhe had looked over ſome goods, ſhe chanced to ſee my china vaſe, which was in the room. She took a prodigious fancy to it, and offered me any price, if I would part with it: but this I declined doing, becauſe I believed that I ſhould draw down upon my head ſome dreadful calamity, if I voluntarily relinquiſhed the talifman. Irritated by my refuſal, the lady, according to the cuſtom of her ſex, became more reſolute in her purpoſe; but neither entreaties nor money could change my determination. Provoked beyond meaſure at my obſtinacy, as ſhe called it, ſhe left the houſe.

"The next day the lady returned, and my brother ſold his vaſe to her for ten thouſand pieces of gold. This money he laid out in the moſt advantageous manner, by purchaſing a new ſtock of merchandiſe.

"The lady, who bought my brother Saladin's vaſe, was the favourite of the Sultana, and all-powerful in the Seraglio. Her diſlike to me, in conſequence of my oppoſition to her wiſhes, was ſo violent that ſhe refuſed to return to my brother's houſe whilſt I remained there. He was unwilling to part with me; but I could not bear to be the ruin of ſo good a brother. Without telling him my deſign, I left his houſe, careleſs of what ſhould become of me. Hunger, however, ſoon compelled me to think of ſome immediate mode of obtaining relief. I ſat down upon a ſtone, before the door of a baker's ſhop: the ſmell of hot bread tempted me in, and with a feeble voice I demanded charity.

"The maſter baker gave me as much bread as I could eat, upon condition that I ſhould change dreſſes with him, and carry the rolls for him through the city this day. To this I readily conſented; but I had ſoon reaſon to repent of my compliance. Indeed, if my ill luck had not, as uſual, deprived me at the critical moment of memory and judgment, I ſhould never have complied with the baker's treacherous propoſal. For ſome time before, the people of Conſtantinople had been much diſſatisfied with the weight and quality of the bread furniſhed by the bakers. This ſpecies of diſcontent has often been the ſure forerunner of an inſurrection; and, in theſe diſturbances, the maſter bakers frequently loſe their lives. All theſe circumſtances I knew; but they did not occur to my memory when they might have been uſeful.

"I changed dreſſes with the baker; but ſcarcely had I proceeded through the adjoining ſtreet, with my rolls, before the mob began to gather round me, with reproaches and execrations. The crowd purſued me even to the gates of the Grand Seignior's palace; and the Grand Vizier, alarmed at their violence, ſent out an order to have my head ſtruck off: the uſual remedy, in ſuch caſes, being to ſtrike off the baker's head.

"I now fell upon my knees, and proteſted I was not the baker for whom they took me; that I had no connection with him; and that

I had never furniſhed the people of Conſtantinople with bread that was not weight. I declared I had merely changed clothes with a maſter baker, for this day; and that I ſhould not have done ſo, but for the evil deſtiny which governs all my actions. Some of the mob exclaimed that I deſerved to loſe my head for my folly: but others took pity on me, and, whilſt the officer, who was ſent to execute the vizier's order, turned to ſpeak to ſome of the noiſy rioters, thoſe who were touched by my misfortune opened a paſſage for me through the crowd, and thus favoured I effected my eſcape.

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on the subject of education; and afterward points out the several duties appropriate to middle age; more especially the consolation and support they are called upon to afford the aged. Some prayers selected from good authors conclude the work. We wish this advice, which is excellent in its kind, had been sent into the world in a cheaper form.

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"If the battle, upon which hangs the independence of our country, cannot be fought in France, rather than the war ſhould linger, we can loſe nothing by its being fought in England; and, when it ſhall

ſhall be fought, it is deſirable that it ſhould be of ſo deciſive a nature, as that the conſequences of it to France ſhould ſecure to us a deſirable peace, from the moſt deſirable of all cauſes—that of her inability to diſturb it."

Mr. C. recommends, as our principal reliance, a large central army, both for Great Britain and Ireland.

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> "Haſten that bleſt, that great, that promis'd hour,
> When ALL ſhall feel the Goſpel's ſacred pow'r;
> When ALL ſhall One Eternal God adore,
> And the Redeemer's praiſe reſound from ſhore to ſhore."

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"With

" With words perſuaſive, BLAIR his reader charms,
The friends of vice attacks, defeats, diſarms;
Diſpels each cloud that o'er the Chriſtian low'rs,
And ſtrews the thorny path to bliſs with flow'rs."

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" *Pity* might ſigh a wiſh, the agitation
He* lately ſhew'd, gave hopes of reformation;
Ah, no! in his black ſoul, the ſeat of vice,
'Twas pers'nal fear, and paleſac'd cowardice!
Safely embark'd, his vicious mind began
Of future villanies to lay the plan."

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CORRESPONDENCE.

To the Editor of the Imperial Review.

SIR,

AFTER congratulating you on the ſucceſs which your new undertaking has met with, and the increaſe of it, which from its general tenor you have reaſon to expect; will you allow me to addreſs you on a topic that eſſentially concerns its future reception?

In your laſt Number an article is inſerted on Mr. Good's Life of Dr. Geddes, upon whoſe writings, and particularly his Verſion and Notes on the Bible, ſuch high encomiums are beſtowed as ſeem to imply a commendation (may I not ſay *unqualified*, by the writer?) of their general contents and tendency. If now it be the object of your Review to favour works of this ſtamp, through partiality to their authors, or from any other motive, you are here called upon to avow it; and your readers will then know what they may look for; otherwiſe it muſt be conſidered an inſidious procedure to ſanction, by an authorative recommendation, what may be productive of much ſerious miſchief. A fair ſtatement of opinions, whatever be their nature, can produce but little prejudice if left open to diſcuſſion. Every advocate for truth will ſay, "give us light, and in the light let us periſh;" but ſurely the conduct of your Reviewer, in the preſent inſtance, is ſcarcely to be reconciled with this principle.

I am, Sir,

An Advocate for Freedom of Inquiry, and a Lover of Truth, wherever it may be found.

April 5, 1804.

IN anſwer to the foregoing letter the Conductors of the Imperial Review feel themſelves called upon unequivocally to ſtate

ſtate that they by no means entertain the opinion that the Verſion and Notes of Dr. Geddes ought to be commended with unqualified approbation. On the contrary, they are ready to maintain that both in point of ſtyle and ſentiment numerous paſſages of that work are liable to very ſerious objections. If their correſpondent (whoſe zeal for the intereſts of truth entitles him to reſpectful notice) will have the goodneſs again to conſult the article which has occaſioned his friendly animadverſions, he will find that its author has not given his own opinion of Dr. Geddes's works, but that of Mr. Good (ſee pp. 398—9) in which Dr. Geddes's defects are clearly pointed out. This being the caſe, they truſt that they ſhall be acquitted of the heavy imputation of ſanctioning writings the tendency of which is to produce "much ſerious miſchief." They are, and always have been, Friends to the exiſting eſtabliſhments in Church and State; and they would conſequently abhor the thought of becoming inſtrumental to the carrying on any inſidious attack on the one or on the other. Yet they do not conceive that an adherence to theſe fundamental principles precludes them from admitting into their work liberal diſcuſſions on all topics, or from engaging the aſſiſtance of perſons of various parties. It is their wish to procure fair and impartial accounts of the publications which come under its notice without any undue regard to their authors. In ſhort, it is their main object to conſtitute their Journal a repoſitory of that "fair ſtatement of opinions," which, as their correſpondent juſtly remarks, "can produce but little prejudice if left open to diſcuſſion."

*** *The Conductors of the* IMPERIAL REVIEW, *wiſhing that their Journal may be an impartial Regiſter of every literary Work, as early as poſſible after Publication, requeſt that all Pamphlets and ſmall Productions may be ſent for the Editor's Inſpection; as, from the various Modes of advertiſing now adopted, he finds it difficult to collect them ſo ſoon as he could wiſh, and fears that, after all his Care, ſome may be found to have eſcaped his Notice.*

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